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THE SUBMARINE AND THE AIRSHIP IN THE DAY-DREAMS OF OUR FOREFATHERS

In the closing decade of the nineteenth century, an English chemist undertook the redetermination of the atomic weights of known chemical elements. He found, to his astonishment, that the atom of nitrogen prepared from the air was heavier than the atom of nitrogen derived from a nitrate. After thorough investigation, undertaken jointly with two other noted chemists, it was shown that the so-called atmospheric nitrogen is a mixture of two gases possessing strikingly similar properties. One of these, present in a small proportion, was found to be heavier than nitrogen and somewhat more inert. To this was given the name Argon.

Cavendish, 100 years before this date, experimenting with nitrogen prepared from the air, found that there was present small portions of the nitrogen which refused to behave as nitrogen should. He sets this fact down for the information of those who may come after him. We now know that the gas which Cavendish had isolated was the new element Argon. The early discovery, however interesting, in no way detracts from the credit due to the modern rediscoverers of the element. In Cavendish's day the science of chemistry was not sufficiently developed to take advantage of the discovery.

Mr. Holland, a pupil of the Christian Brothers and an alumnus of Manhattan College, was the inventor of the submarine. The credit due him is in no way diminished by the fact that Jules Verne had previously written his "Twenty-thousand Leagues under the Sea," nor by another fact which is perhaps generally forgotten, that a submarine was described by Bishop John Wilkins of Chester, who died in 1672. The description of the submarine occurs in a book entitled, "Mathematical Magick or the Wonders that may

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be performed by Mechanical Geometry," which was first published in 1648.

Sister Mary Agnes, of the Sisters of Charity of Cincinnati, delving in her Convent library, came upon an old edition of this work printed in 1708, and opening it by chance on the description of the submarine was naturally surprised to find so modern an invention the subject of such early discussion. The chapter is well worth reading from many points of view. It is scarcely less interesting, however, than a subsequent chapter in the same volume, in which the Right Reverend author, who was some time head of Trinity College and a distinguished member of the Royal Society, discourses "of the *volant automata*," and in which he discusses at some length on the difficulties and the advantages of the airship.

These two brief chapters are so interesting in the light of the present war and the development and uses to which these inventions have been put that an apology is not needed for their reproduction in the Review.

Concerning the Possibility of Framing an Ark for Submarine Navigations. The Difficulties and Conveniences of Such a Contrivance

It will not be altogether impertinent unto the Discourse of these gradient *Automata*, to mention what *Mersennus* doth so largely and pleasantly descant upon, concerning the making of a Ship, wherein Men may safely swim under the Water.

That such a Contrivance is feasible and may be effected, is beyond all Question, because it hath been already experimented here in *England* by *Cornelius Dreble;* but how to improve it unto Publick Use and Advantage, so as to be serviceable for remote Voyages, the carrying of any considerable Number of Men, with Provisions and Commodities, would be of such excellent Use, as may deserve some further Enquiry.

Concerning which there are two things chiefly considerable:

The { many Difficulties with their Remedies.
{ great Conveniences.

I. The Difficulties are generally reducible to these Three Heads.

1. The letting out, or receiving in any thing, as there shall be occasion without the Admission of Water. If it have not such a Convenience, these kind of Voyages must needs be very dangerous

and uncomfortable, both by Reason of many noisome, offensive Things, which should be thrust out, and many other needful Things which should be receiv'd in. Now herein will consist the Difficulty, how to contrive the opening of this Vessel so, that any thing may be put in or out, and yet the Water does not rush into it with much Violence, as it doth usually in the Leak of a Ship.

In which Case, this may be a proper Remedy; let there be certain Leather Bags made of several Bignesses, which for the Matter of them should be both *tractable* for the Use and Managing of them, and strong to keep out the Water; for the Figure of them, being long and open at both Ends. Answerable to these, let there be divers Windows, or open Places in the Frame of the Ship, round the Sides of which one End of these Bags may be fixed, the other End coming within the Ship, being to open and shut as a Purse. Now if we suppose this Bag thus fastned, to be tied close about towards the Window, then anything that is to be sent out, may be safely put into that End within the Ship, which being again close shut, and the other End loosened, the thing may be safely sent out without the Admission of any Water.

So again, when any thing is to be taken in, it must be first receiv'd into that Part of the Bag towards the Window, which being (after the thing is within it) close tied about, the other end may then be safely opened. It is easie to conceive, how by this means any Thing or Person may be sent out, or receiv'd in, as there shall be occasion; how the Water, which will perhaps by Degrees leak into several Parts, may be emptied out again, with divers the like Advantages. Tho' if there should be any Leak at the Bottom of this Vessel, yet very little Water would get in, because no Air could get out.

2. The second Difficulty in such an Ark will be the Motion or fixing of it according to occasion: The directing of it to several places, as the Voyage shall be designed, without which, it would be very useless, if it were to remain only in one Place, or were to remove only blindfold, without any certain Direction. And the Contrivance of this may seem very difficult, because these submarine Navigators will want the usual Advantages of Winds and Tides for Motion, and the Sight of the Heavens for Direction.

But these Difficulties may be thus remedied: As for the *Progressive* Motion of it, this may be effected by the Help of several Oars, which in the outward Ends of them, shall be like the Fins

of a Fish to contract and dilate. The Passage where they are admitted into the Ship being tied about with such Leather Bags (as were mentioned before) to keep out the Water. It will not be convenient perhaps that the Motion in these Voyages should be very swift, because of those Observations and Discoveries to be made at the Bottom of the Sea, which in a little space may abundantly recompense the Slowness of its Progress.

If this Ark be so ballast as to be of equal Weight with the like Magnitude of Water, it will then be easily moveable in any Part of it.

As for the Ascent of it, this may be easily contrived, if there be some great Weight at the Bottom of the Ship (being part of its Ballast) which by some Cord within may be loosened from it. As this Weight is let lower, so will the Ship ascend from it (if need be) to the very Surface of the Water; and again, as it is pulled close to the Ship, so will it *descend*.

For *Direction* of this Ark, the Mariners Needle may be useful in respect of the *Latitude* of Places; and the Course of this Ship being more regular than others, by reason it is not subject to Tempests or unequal Winds, may more certainly guide them in judging of the *Longitude* of Places.

3. But the greatest Difficulty of all will be this, how the Air may be supplied for Respiration? How constant Fires may be kept in it for Light and the Dressing of Food; how those Vicissitudes of Rarefaction and Condensation may be maintained.

It is observed, that a Barrel or Cap, whose Cavity will contain Eight Cubical Feet of Air, will not serve a Urinator or Diver for Respiration, above one quarter of an Hour; the Breath which is often sucked in and out, being so corrupted by the mixture of Vapours, that Nature rejects it as unserviceable. Now in an Hour a Man will need at least 300 and Sixty Respirations, betwixt every one of which there shall be 10 second Minutes, and consequently a great Change and Supply of Air will be necessary for many Persons, and any long Space.

And so likewise for the keeping of Fire; a close Vessel containing 10 Cubical Feet of Air, will not suffer a Wax Candle of an Ounce to burn in it above an Hour before it be suffocated; tho' this Proportion (saith *Mersennus*) doth not equally increase for several Lights, because Four Flames of an equal Magnitude will be kept alive the Space of 16 second Minutes, tho' one of these Flames alone

in the same Vessel will not last above 35, or at the most 30 seconds; which may be easily tried in large glass Bottles, having Wax Candles lighted in them, and with their Mouths inverted in Water.

For the Resolution of this Difficulty, though I will not say, that a Man may, by Custom (which in other things doth produce such strange incredible Effects) be enabled to live in the open Water, as the Fishes do, the Inspiration and Expiration of Water serving instead of Air, this being usual with many Fishes that have Lungs; yet it is certain, that long Use and Custom may strengthen Men against many such Inconveniences of this kind, which to unexperienced Persons may prove very hazardous: And so it will not perhaps be unto these so necessary, to have the Air for breathing so pure and defecated, as is required for others.

But further, there are in this Case these Three Things considerable.

1. That the Vessel itself should be of a large Capacity, that as the Air in it is corrupted in one part, so it may be purified and renewed in the other: Or if the meer Refrigeration of the Air would fit it for Breathing, this might be somewhat helped with Bellows, which would cool it by Motion.

2. It is not altogether improbable, that the Lamps or Fires in the Middle of it, like the reflected Beams in the first Region, rarefying the Air, and the circumambient Coldness towards the sides of the Vessel, like the second Region, cooling and condensing of it, would make such a Vicissitude and Change of Air, as might fit it for all its proper Uses.

3. Or if neither of these Conjectures will help, yet *Mersennus* tells us in another Place, that there is in *France* one *Barrieus* a Diver, who hath lately found one another Art, whereby a Man might easily continue under Water for six Hours together; and whereas Ten Cubical Feet of Air will not serve another Diver to breathe in for half an Hour, he by the Help of a Cavity, not above one or two Foot at most, will have Breath enough for six Hours, and a Lanthorn scarce above the usual Size to keep a Candle burning as long as a Man please, which (if it be true, and were commonly known) might be a sufficient Help against this greatest Difficulty.

As for the many Advantages and Conveniences of such a Contrivance, it is not easie to recite them. 1. 'Tis *Private;* a Man may thus go to any Coast of the World invisibly, without being discovered or prevented in his Journey.

2. 'Tis *Safe;* from the Uncertainty of *Tides*, and the Violence of *Tempests*, which do never move the Sea above Five or Six Paces deep. From *Pirates* and *Robbers* which do so infest other Voyages: From Ice and great Frosts, which do so much endanger the Passages towards the Poles.

3. It may be of very great Advantage against a Navy of Enemies, who by this means may be undermined in the Water, and blown up.

4. It may be of special use for the Relief of any Place that is Besieged by Water, to convey unto them Invisible Supplies; and so likewise for the Surprizal of any Place that is accessible by Water.

5. It may be of unspeakable Benefit for Submarine Experiments and Discoveries; as,

The several Proportions of Swiftness betwixt the ascent of a Bladder, Cork, or any other light Substance, in comparison to the descent of Stones or Lead. The deep Caverns, and Subterraneous Passages, where the Sea-water, in the Course of its Circulation, doth vent itself into other Places, and the like. The Nature and Kinds of Fishes, the several Arts of Catching them, by alluring them with Lights, by placing divers Nets about the Sides of this Vessel, shooting the greater sort of them with Guns, which may be put out of the Ship by the help of such Bags as were mentioned before, with divers the like Artifices and Treacheries, which may be more successfully practised by such who live so familiarly together. These Fish may serve not only for Food, but for Fewel likewise, in respect of that Oil which may be extracted from them; the way of Dressing Meat by Lamps, being in many Respects the most convenient for such a Voyage.

The many fresh Springs that may probably be met with in the bottom of the Sea, will serve for the Supply of Drink, and other Occasions.

But above all, the Discovery of submarine Treasures is more especially considerable; not only in regard of what hath been drowned by Wrecks, but the several precious Things that grow there; as Pearl, Coral, Mines; with innumerable other Things of great value, which may be much more easily found out, and fetch'd up by the help of this, than by any other usual way of the Urinators.

To which purpose, this great Vessel may have some lesser Cabins tyed about it, at various Distances; wherein several Persons, as Scouts, may be lodged for the taking of Observations,

according as the Admiral shall direct them: Some of them being frequently sent up to the Surface of the Water, as there shall be Occasion.

All kind of Arts and Manufactures may be exercised in this Vessel. The Observations made by it, may be both Written, and (if need were) Printed here likewise. Several Colonies may thus inhabit, having their Children born, and bred up without the knowledge of Land, who could not chuse but be amazed with strange Conceits upon the Discovery of this Upper World.

I am not able to judge what other Advantages there may be suggested, or whether Experiment would fully answer to these Notional Conjectures. But, however, because the Invention did unto me seem ingenious and new, being not impertinent to the present Enquiry, therefore, I thought it might be worth the mentioning.

Under the head of "Volant Automata" Bishop Wilkins discusses four chief types of effort for the conquest of the air: (1) By spirits, or angels. (2) By the help of fowls. (3) By wings fastened immediately to the body. (4) By a flying chariot. It is evidently the fourth of these alone that contains the prophecy of our airship; and while the preceding portions of the chapter are interesting, we give here only this latter portion:

A Resolution of the two chief Difficulties that seem to oppose the Possibility of a Flying Chariot.

The chief Difficulties against the possibility of any such Contrivance, may be fully removed in the Resolution of these two *Quaeries.*

1. Whether an Engine of such Capacity and Weight, may be supported by so thin and light a Body as the Air?

2. Whether the Strength of the Persons within it, may be sufficient for the Motion of it?

1. Concerning the first; when *Callias* was required by the Men of *Rhodes*, to take up that great *Helopolis*, brought against them by *Demetrius*, (as he had done before unto some less which he himself had made). He answered that it could not be done. *Nonnula enim sunt quae in exemplaribus videntur similia, cum autem crescere caeperunt, dilabuntur.* Because those Things that appear probable in lesser Models, when they are increased to a greater Proportion, do thereby exceed the Power of Art. For Example, though a Man may make an Instrument to bore a Hole,

an Inch wide, or half an Inch, and so less; yet to bore a Hole of a Foot wide, or two Foot, is not so much as to be thought of. Thus, though the Air may be able to uphold some lesser Bodies, as those of Birds, yet when the quantity of them is increased to any great Extension, it may justly be doubted, whether they will not exceed the Proportion that is naturally required unto such kind of Bodies.

To this I answer, that the Engine can never be too big or too heavy, if the space which it possesses in the Air, and the Motive-Faculty in the Instrument be answerable to its Weight. That Saying of *Callias* was but a groundless Shift and Evasion, whereby he did endeavour to palliate his own Ignorance and Disability. The utmost Truth which seems to be implied in it, is this: That there may be some Bodies of so great a Bigness, and Gravity, that it is very difficult to apply so much Force unto any particular Instrument, as shall be able to move them.

Against the Example it may be affirmed and easily proved, that it is equally possible to bore a Hole of any bigness, as well great as little, if we suppose the Instrument, and the Strength, and the Application of this Strength to be proportionable; But because of the difficulty of these concurrent Circumstances in those greater and more unusual Operations, therefore do they falsely seem to be absolutely impossible.

So that the chief Inference from this Argument and Example, doth imply only this much, that it is very difficult to contrive any such motive Power, as shall be answerable to the Greatness and Weight of such an Instrument, as is here discoursed of; which doth not at all impair the Truth to be maintained: For if the possibility of such a Motion be yielded, we need not make any scruple of granting the Difficulty of it; It is this must add a Glory to the Invention; and yet this will not perhaps seem so very difficult to any one who hath but diligently observed the Flight of some other Birds, particularly of a Kite, how he will swim up and down in the Air, sometimes at a great height, and presently again lower, guiding himself by his Train, with his Wings extended without any sensible Motion of them; and all this, when there is only some gentle breath of air stirring, without the help of any strong forcible Wind. Now I say, if that Fowl (which is none of the lightest) can so very easily move itself up and down in the Air, without so much as stirring the Wings of it, certainly then it is not improbable, but that when all the due

Proportions in such an Engine are found out, and when Men by long Practice have arrived to any Skill and Experience, they will be able in this (as well as in many other Things) to come very near unto the imitation of Nature.

As it is in those Bodies which are carried on the Water, though they be never so big or so ponderous, (suppose equal to a City or a whole Island) yet they will always swim on the Top, if they be but any thing lighter than so much Water as is equal to them in Bigness; So likewise is it in the Bodies that are carried in the Air. It is not their Greatness (though never so immense) that can hinder their being supported in that light Element, if we suppose them to be extended unto a proportionable Space of Air. And as from the former Experiments, *Archimedes* hath composed a subtle *Science* in his Book *De insidentibus humido* concerning the Weight of any heavy Body, in reference to the Water wherein it is; so from the particular Trial of these other Experiments, that are here enquired after, it is possible to raise a new Science, concerning the Extension of Bodies, in comparison to the Air, and motive Faculties by which they are to be carried.

We see a great difference betwixt the several Quantities of such Bodies as are commonly upheld by the Air; not only little Gnats, and Flies, but also the Eagle and other Fowl of vaster Magnitude. *Carden* and *Scaliger* do unanimously affirm, that there is a Bird amongst the *Indians* of so great a bigness, that his Beak is often used to make a Sheath or Scabbard for a Sword. And *Acosta* tells us of a Fowl in *Peru* called *Candores*, which will of themselves kill and eat up a whole Calf at a time. Nor is there any Reason why any other Body may not be supported and carried by the Air, though it should as much exceed the Quantity of these Fowl, as they do the quantity of a Fly.

Marcus Polus mentions a Fowl in *Madagascar*, which he calls a *Ruck*, the Feather of whose Wings are 12 Paces, or Threescore Foot long, which can with as much ease soop up an Elephant, as our Kites do a Mouse. If this Relation were any thing credible, it might serve as an abundant Proof for the present *Quaere*. But I conceive this to be already so evident, that it needs not any Fable for its further Confirmation.

2. The other doubt was, whether the Strength of the other Persons within it, will be sufficient for the moving of this Engine? I answer, the main Difficulty and Labour of it will be in the raising

of it from the Ground; near unto which, the Earths attractive Vigor is of greatest Efficacy. But for the better effecting of this, it may be helped by the Strength of Winds, and by taking its first Rise from some Mountain or other high Place. When once it is aloft in the Air, the Motion of it will be easie, as it is in the Flight of all kinds of Birds, which being at any great Distance from the Earth, are able to continue their Motion for a long Time and Way, with little Labour or Weariness.

'Tis certain from common Relation and Experience that many Birds do cross the Seas for divers hundred Miles together: Sundry of them amongst us, which are of a short Wing and Flight, as Blackbirds, Nightingales, etc., do flie from us into *Germany*, and other remoter Countries. And Mariners do commonly affirm that they have found some Fowl above six hundred Miles from any Land. Now if we should suppose these Birds to labour so much in those long Journies, as they do when they fly in our Sight and near the Earth, it were impossible for any of them to pass so far without resting. And therefore it is probable, that they do mount unto so high a Place in the Air, where the natural Heaviness of their Bodies does prove but little or no impediment to their Flight: Tho' perhaps either Hunger, or the Sight of Ships, or the like accident, may sometimes occasion their descending lower; as we may guess of those Birds which Mariners have thus beheld, and divers others that have been drowned and cast up by the Sea.

Whence it may appear, that the Motion of this Chariot (tho' it may be difficult at the first) yet will still be easier as it ascends higher, till at length it shall become utterly devoid of Gravity, when the least Strength will be able to bestow upon it a swift Motion: As I have proved more at large in another Discourse.

But then (may some object), If it be supposed that a Man in the Aethereal Air does lose his own heaviness, how shall he contribute any force towards the Motion of this Instrument?

I answer, The Strength of any living Creature in these external Motions, is something really distrust from, and superadded unto its natural Gravity: As common Experience may shew; not only in the Impression of Blows or violent Motions, as a River Hawk will strike a Fowl with a far greater Force, than the meer Descent or Heaviness of his Body could possibly perform: But also in those Actions which are done without such Help, as the Pinching of the Finger, the Biting of the Teeth, etc., all which are of much

greater Strength than can proceed from the meer Heaviness of those Parts.

As for the other particular Doubts, concerning the extream Thinness and Coldness of this Aethereal Air, by reason of which, it may seem to be altogether impassible, I have already resolved them in the above-cited Discourse.

The Uses of such a Chariot may be various: Besides the Discoveries which might be thereby made in the Lunary World, it would be serviceable also for the Conveyance of a Man to any remote Place of this Earth: As suppose to the *Indies* or *Antipodes*. For when once it was elevated for some few Miles, so as to be above that Orb of Magnetick Virtue, which is carried about by the Earths diurnal Revolution, it might then be very easily and speedily directed to any particular Place of this great Globe.

If the Place which we intended were under the same Parallel, why then the Earth's Revolution once in Twenty-four Hours, would bring it to be under us; so that it would be but descending in a straight Line, and we might presently be there. If it were under any other Parallel, it would then only require that we should direct it in the same Meridian till we did come to that Parallel; and then (as before) a Man might easily descend unto it.

It would be one great Advantage in this kind of Travelling, that one should be perfectly freed from all Inconveniences of Ways or Weather, not having any Extremity of Heat or Cold, or Tempests to molest him. This Aethereal Air being perpetually in an equal Temper and Calmness. *Pars superior mundi ordinatior est nec in nubem cogitur, nec in tempestatem impellitur, nec versatur in turbinem, omni tumultu caret, inferiora fulminant.* The upper Parts of the World are always quiet and serene, no Winds and Blustring there, they are these lower cloudy Regions that are so full of Tempests and Combustion.

As for the Manner how the Force of a Spring, or (instead of that) the Strength of any living Person, may be applied to the Motion of these Wings of the Chariot, it may easily be apprehended from what was formerly delivered.

There are divers other particulars to be more fully enquired after, for the perfecting of such a flying Chariot; as concerning the Proportion of the Wings both for the Length and Breadth, in comparison to the Weight which is to be carried by them; as also concerning those special Contrivances, whereby the Strength of

these Wings may be severally applied, either to ascent, descent, progressive, or a turning Motion; all which, and divers the like Enquiries can only be resolved by particular Experiments. We know the Invention of Sailing in Ships does continually receive some new Addition from the Experience of every Age, and hath been a long while growing up to that Perfection unto which it is now arrived. And so must it be expected for this likewise, which may at first perhaps seem perplexed with many Difficulties and Inconveniences, and yet upon the Experience of frequent Trials, many things may be suggested to make it more facil and commodious.

He that would regularly attempt any Thing to this Purpose, should observe this Progress in his Experiments; he should first make Enquiry what kind of Wings would be most useful to this End; those of a Bat being most easily imitable, and perhaps Nature did by them purposely intend some Intimation to direct us in such Experiments; that Creature being not properly a Bird, because not amongst the *Ovipara*, to imply that other kind of Creatures are capable of Flying as well as Birds; and if any should attempt it, that would be the best Pattern for Imitation.

After this he may try what may be effected by the Force of Springs in lesser Models, answerable unto *Archytas* his Dove, and *Regiomontanus* his Eagle: In which he must be careful to observe the various Proportions betwixt the Strength of the Spring, the Heaviness of the Body, the Breadth of the Wings, the Swiftness of the Motion, etc.

From these he may by Degrees ascend to some larger Essays.

Of course, any little boy or girl in our schools would be capable of pointing out some of the fatal flaws in either the submarine or the airship described by Bishop Wilkins. But, who will say that the dream—for it was little more—had elements in it of value. It is something merely to contemplate the advantages of these modes of locomotion, and it is something added to have the courage to attempt, even in words, to outline a plan for the realization of our desires. I have heard more than one dreamer with limited knowledge of science suggest such an ascent as the Bishop mentions, and then to remain poised in the upper regions while the earth slipped round a few thousand miles. What a convenient arrangement it would really be! All that we would need to do to make it tangible would be to fasten our chariot by

means of a long cable to the sun, and then we could pull ourselves up a way and let the earth slip round on its axis, under us. But, even this would not give us the Bishop's highway to the moon. Let us not, therefore, rest content with flying machines or even with dreadnoughts of the air. Where is the prophet bold enough or with vision keen enough to measure what the future holds in store?

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

THE ANCREN RIWLE*

INTRODUCTION

Caxton says in his Foreward to the "Aeneid:" "In whiche booke I had grete playsyr. by cause of the fayr and honest termes & wordes in frensche. Whyche I neuer sawe to fore lyke. ne none so playsaunt ne so wel ordred, whiche booke as me semed sholde be moche requysyte to noble men to see as well for the *eloquence* as the *historyes*." This quaint foreword, written four hundred years ago, will offer, perhaps, the most lucid explanation for undertaking the present study. While the Ancren Riwle does not possess the elegance (eloquence) of a perfected piece of literature, as such, yet a modern critic has not hesitated to describe it as one of the most perfect models of semple, eloquent prose in our language."[1] Its stories (historyes) too have an intrinsic worth, for they reflect the state of society, the learning and manners, the moral and religious teaching of the great thirteenth century. Of this period Macaulay says: "Then was formed that language, less musical indeed than the language of the south, but in force, in richness, in aptitude for all the highest purposes of the poet, the philosopher, and the orator, inferior to the tongue of Greece alone. Then, too, appeared the first faint dawn of that noble literature, the most splendid and the most durable of the many glories of England."[2] Morley exclaims: "I want to know what men thought and did in the thirteenth century, not out of any dilettante or idle antiquarian's curiosity, but because the thirteenth century is at the root of what men think and do in the nineteenth."[3] In preparing the present paper, little of the Laboratory Method has been used; no minute analyses have been made. My particular aim has been to show that English is the original text and, incidentally, to demonstrate the importance of the Ancren Riwle; not so much in regard to the history of our language formation, which more fitly belongs to a philologist, but as a valuable and true picture of the times.

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* A dissertation by Sr. Mary Raymond, O.S.D., B.A., Caldwell, N. J., submitted to the Sisters College of the Catholic University of America in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Master of Arts.

[1] Sweet, First Mid. Eng. Primer, Preface, p. vi.

[2] *History of England*, Vol. I, p. 20.

[3] *Popular Culture*, October, 1876.

The earliest recorded utterances of a people are a treasure beyond price to its descendants, and the value of manuscripts of a past, be it remote or near, is manifold. Perhaps it is well to note, in passing, that it was nearly always a philological interest that led to the first publication of these MSS.; but their social importance, to my mind, is equally great and equally valuable as a study. Through them we become acquainted with the ancesters of the people of today. We see for the first time their real, though dim outlines, moving in and out of the mists that obscure the past. In the present work, we learn what manner of men and women lived in the transitional period of our language; what was their grasp on the Old English, what kind of hand did they extend to the New; what were their family and social relations, their food and drink, their dress and home, their ideals, morals and religion.

We are told that a people's literature is a criterion of its civilization.[4] "It embodies what is most enduring in thought, and records what is best worth remembering in deeds; . . . [but] thought is modified by circumstances. It gets its shape from the place and time in which it is expressed; it receives its coloring from the person by whom it is spoken."[5]

The perusal of this work has more, however, than a sentimental interest. It occupies, as already suggested, an important place in the development of the English language. Oliphant says: "If it be true, as some tell us, that the mingling of the Teutonic and Romance in our tongue makes 'a happy marriage,' we see in the author of the Ancren Riwle the man that first gave out the bans."[6] Without it, the history of English prose from the close of the Old English period down to the beginning of the seventeenth century would be "little more than a dreary blank." Moreover, a later age always finds it difficult to understand the ideals of an earlier period in regard to the fitness and beauty of the surroundings it made for itself. In the Middle Ages England was full of persons who had, in some form or other, taken religious vows. The Thirteenth Century was especially fertile in mystics who "dreamed their dreams and had their visions" in an enchanted world—enchanted to us, but real to them. Of such Inge speaks:

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[4] Cf. Azarias, *The Development of Old English Thought*, Introduction, p. 1.
[5] *Ibid.*, pp. 1–2.
[6] *The Old and Middle English*, p. 435.

. . . "the books of the great mystics do not die. They may be forgotten, . . . but as soon as they become known again, they are found to be very much alive."[7] We find the presence of this mysticism in reading parts of the Ancren Riwle. Its language is an expression of life, not only the life of the three young ladies whom it especially concerned, but of our nation and race. This ideal, or "life idea," pervades the composition throughout.

We must not forget that scholars have, as technical aids to study, divided our language and literature into three great epochs: Old English, extending from the earliest times to the year 1100; Middle English, 1100 to 1500; and Modern, 1500 to the present. These periods are still so long, that each may again be divided; this is true especially of Middle English, when our speech was undergoing very considerable changes. Accordingly, Sir Frederick Madden, whose authority is generally accepted, makes a subdivision of the latter and calls the period from 1100 to 1230 Semi-Saxon. It is to this class that the piece of literature we are now going to study belongs.

A few further introductory words may be necessary on the purpose of the book. It was written not for the inmates of a nunnery, as will be explained in Chapter II, but for women leading a secluded life in the world. The Church has, at all times, given most honor to those monks or nuns who were members of a religious community, but It has not denied the credit of holy living to those who, either alone or with a few companions, devoted themselves to religion. These solitaries likewise received the name of monk or nun. It is with three such English girls, all of gentle birth, that the present work is concerned.

The Ancren Riwle or "rule for anchoresses" is a precious specimen of early English, now distinguished as Semi-Saxon. The date of its composition is generally placed between 1220–1250. It is a treatise on the duties of monastic life, written for the direction of three ladies who, with their domestic or lay sisters, had withdrawn from the world in the bloom of their youth to give themselves up to religious exercises and devout meditations. It is not, properly speaking, like the "Revelations of Juliana of Norwich" or Hylton's "Scale of Perfection," a document of mystical theology. But there is a deep vein of mysticism per-

[7] *Studies of English Mystics*, p. 34.

meating it. This, and the lovable disposition of its author so charmingly reflected in its pages, gives us a clear idea of the high degree of culture and refinement of the thirteenth century mystic.

It is usually alleged, although there is nothing in the text to warrant this assertion, that the anchoresses for whom the Rule was written dwelt at Tarrent in Dorsetshire. Some writers affirm that later they were incorporated with the Cistercians; but at the time when the Rule was composed, they were leading the life of ancresses or recluses. Miss Eckenstein, however, in her estimable work, "Woman under Monasticism," thinks this theory should be abandoned.[8] Dalgairns says . . . "the book could not have been originally written for the sisters at Tarent, who before that date" (1221, the time of the friars' arrival in England) "are known to have been Cistercians and not recluses;" . . .[9] Miss Eckenstein also states: "The idea that it was written for the nunnery at Tarent may also be discarded, . . . at the time when the book was written (1225–1250), the settlement must have consisted of more than three women recluses and their servants. Women recluses might be living at Tarent as elsewhere, since Simon forwarded the book to recluses there (*anachoritis apud Tarente*), but they would not be members of the Cistercian convent."[10] The place was also called Tarrent-Kaines, Kaineston or Kingston, and was situated below Blandford on the river Stour. It was founded in the time of Richard Coeur de Lion, by Ralph de Kahains, the son of one of Norman William's knights, and enlarged in the following century by Richard Poore, dean of Salisbury and afterwards bishop of Durham. The latter died in 1237. It is this house which later became identified with the Cistercian order. There is a well grounded doubt that the three recluses for whom the Ancren Riwle was written ever abode at Tarent or, at least, in that convent founded by Ralph de Kahains and later remodeled by Richard Poore.

The authorship has been tentatively attributed to the latter, but the investigations of the late Professor Kolbing, who was at work on a "monumental edition" of the Ancren Riwle at the time of his death, have destroyed this widely spread theory. The Latin MS., *Regula Anachoritarum sive de vita solitaria* (Mag-

[8] Cf. *Woman under Monasticism*, p. 314*ff*.
[9] Introduction to *Scale of Perfection*, p. 9.
[10] Cf. *Woman under Monasticism*, p. 314*ff*.

dalen College, Oxford, No. 67, fol. 50) has a prefatory note: *Hic incipit prohemium venerabilis patris magistri Simonis de Gandova, episcopi Sarum, in librum de vita solitaris, quem scripsit sororibus suis anachoritis apud Tarente.* Because of this Latin inscription some critics have ascribed the Rule to Simon of Ghent, Bishop of Salisbury, 1297–1315. In James Morton's edition and translation of the Ancren Riwle, published by the Camden Society, 1853, are set forth arguments which disprove such a hasty and superficial conclusion. Even Wanley, while ascribing it to Simon of Ghent, yet betrays his doubts about the matter; for upon one occasion he speaks of it as merely conjectural. Morton also shows that the vernacular, written in a Semi-Saxon Style, and closely resembling that of Layamon, must have been composed full half a century earlier than the Latin version. The latter is a translation of an early English original and is greatly abridged in parts. There are several instances of mistranslation, evidently suggested by the resemblance of words having different significations. There is also a curious attempt to adapt the work to men. A persistent effort is made, moreover, to eliminate the personal character of the address to the sisters, wherein lies the great charm of the Riwle and its value as a reflection of the manners and customs of the period. Not only does it present to us the chivalrous life of the time, but it also pictures for us, in words teeming with suggestion, the life of the common people. We hear the poor pedlar crying his soap, and the rich mercer selling his more valuable wares. "A man ties a knot upon his belt," that he may be reminded of something, which suggests an ordinary practice of the present age. We read of wrestling and other "foolish sports" and the nuns are cautioned about the "play" in the churchyard. Evidently ball games held as great a fascination for the English people of the early thirteenth century, as they do in the twentieth, for we find several references to them. Envious men are compared to jugglers. Occasionally a well-known proverb[11] and, in one instance, the beginning of a popular song[12] reveal the closeness of the author's heart to the throbbing pulse of common humanity.

Who is this unknown author? We should, indeed, like to know; but this, as yet, remains an unsolved problem. Miss

[11] *Ancren Riwle*, King's Classics, p. 106.
[12] *Ibid.*, p. 73.

Eckenstein, in her work already alluded to, makes a passing reference to a Dominican author, while Dalgairns in his Preface to Hylton's "Scale of Perfection" (page ix) does not hesitate to sanction the same. Even Ten Brink admits that one cannot fail to recognize the workings of the new school of preachers, which might indicate a white-robed friar as the writer. While it is written in the dialect of southwestern England, its elevated tone and classical references are suggestive of Paris or Oxford. Whoever the author is, he displays a high degree of culture and familiarity with French and Latin classics, with court poetry and the metaphorical speech that clothed the age of Romance and Chivalry. He had a sound theological training, with a knowledge of the Ancient Fathers. He is especially fond of quoting Bernard. He seems, in some measure, to have been connected with the friars, from his references to "our lay brethren" and his description of the hours as said by them.

Perhaps a fuller knowledge of the English writings of the time may reveal by whom and for whom this unique document was written. It was reproduced in several copies and later translated into French and Latin and exercised "a potent influence upon contemporaries as well as their immediate descendants."[13] Although written originally for the use of three sisters, its broad and kindly spirit makes it suitable for the general use of recluses. Its gentle, lovable author says: . . . "kindly understand, my dear sisters, that I write of solitary life to comfort anchoresses, and yourselves more especially."[14]

The original text has been a subject of careful and learned research by eminent scholars. I feel confident that Mr. Morton's theory, as given in the Preface to the Camden Publication of 1853, is the most probable. It is supported by such philologists as Wülker, Mätzner, and Heuser. It states that English is the original language of the Ancren Riwle, rather than Latin (Smith's and Wanley's theory) or French, which is the opinion of a recent investigator, G. C. Macaulay. True the Rule has appeared in both these languages, but this fact argues only for its popularity, not for its originality. English had during the twelfth century made great strides towards becoming the common language of the country. It was thrust back again in the following century

[13] Ten Brink's *Early English Literature*, translation by Kennedy, p. 205.
[14] *Ancren Riwle*, Cam. Pub., p. 153.

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by an influence distinctly French, but which was not strong enough to break down all native barriers and to sweep the native tongue entirely away.

The Thirteenth Century Vocabularies introduce us to a novel document which confirms this opinion. They were used to teach French to the children of the English nobility and gentry. Accordingly the text was written in the former language, with an interlinear gloss in the latter. They mark a very important period in the history of our native speech, as they show that before the end of the thirteenth century (even at the very time the Ancren Riwle was composed) English had become the mother tongue of the children of the Anglo-Norman nobility and they learned it before being taught French. The latter, Freeman tells us, had reached the height of its influence in the thirteenth century. It was the tongue of half the courts of Europe. It is not strange, therefore, that it should have been used in England as well. The effect of this French invasion is seen in the romance words found in parts of the Ancren Riwle. But their presence forms a very weak argument for an original French text. As the foundation of our laws and government rest on Early English, rather than French originals, so the basic principles of our language, as seen in the Riwle and other early manuscripts, are not Romance, but Teutonic and English. Dalgairns also says: . . . "It is evident that it must have been written before French had penetrated to any great extent into the English tongue . . . the newness of words of French origin proves how little two centuries of Norman rule had succeeded in Romanizing the old language of the Saxon. Though the recluses to whom the book is addressed evidently could read French, yet the whole language and tone of thought is essentially English.[15] Since the Ancren Riwle has a larger percentage of Latin words than either "Ormulum" or "Brut," this may give rise to the assumption that Latin is the original text. But this again is a hasty and superficial conclusion, for the use of such words is quite easily explained. All the rules of monastic orders and a great many of the treatises then extant on religious topics were in Latin. An ecclesiastic would naturally use the Latin terms that were familiar to him in preparing an English work for the direction of women leading solitary lives. They would comprehend them too, because, from their very infancy,

[15] Introduction to *Scale of Perfection*, p. 9.

Holy Mother Church had trained them to the sound of the Latin tongue in all great ceremonies. English and Latin, moreover, had continued, side by side, as the exclusive vehicles of the language of the government from 600 to 1160; from the latter date to 1215, Latin reigned supreme in all legal affairs. No Englishman could take offence if the language of the Church, revered alike by himself and his French-speaking neighbor, were so used. It is, therefore, quite logical to suppose that from 1215, when the popularity of Latin had begun to wane, to 1225, about the time the Ancren Riwle was composed, it was not totally eclipsed and it could still exert a potent influence in writings of such a nature as the Riwle. The numerous directions contained therein would be quite in keeping with the governmental use made of the Latin only a few years before. What is more, a letter, written in Latin, between 1131 and 1161 from one Ailred de Rievaulx to his sister contains advice analogous to that in the Ancren Riwle. Its purpose was also the same, though it was very much restricted. This Latin epistle was known to the author of the Riwle, who refers to it quite freely, and it undoubtedly exerted a direct influence on his choice of technical terms. Otherwise the language of the Riwle is very much the same as that of the nearly contemporary writings referred to above. In Ten Brink's opinion, it displays a good English construction and the author himself distinctly encourages his anchoresses to say English prayers.

The Riwle is divided into eight parts or books in which the author proposes to speak of two rules, the outer and the inner. The former is only the handmaiden of the latter, says this broad-minded ecclesiastic, and may be modiffed to suit circumstances, but the inner rule is unchangeable and its observation is a duty. Thus he devotes only the first and last books to the external rule, while the remaining six are an exposition of the purely spiritual side of religion or the inner rule. The central idea is the supreme importance of purity of heart and love of Christ, Who, in a finely elaborated passage, is pictured as a gallant Knight wooing the Soul, a Lady "besieged by her foes within an earthen castle."[16] The writer is perfectly well aware of what comes of unlimited indulgence of sense and will; but excessive austerities he does not counsel, and even forbids them. He is never weary of dilating on the superiority of the inner to the outer rule. With the re-

[16] *Ancren Riwle*, King's Classics, pp. 294–95.

nunciation of self as the keynote of the Ancren Riwle, we are not surprised that a recent critic has said that few productions of modern literature have contained finer pictures of the Divine Love and sympathy. He continues: "Across the fierce storm clouds of theology, which continued to sweep the heavens for hundreds of years, the pages of the Ancren Riwle reflect the rainbow hues of the Galilean's compassion for laboring and heavy-laden humanity."[17]

The monitor of the anchoresses writes in a simple, straightforward style, though not disdaining the use of symbolism. He personifies the capital sins as the Lion of Pride, the Serpent of Envy, the Unicorn of Wrath, the Bear of Sloth, the Fox of Covetousness, the Swine of Gluttony and the Scorpion of Lust.[18] He also likens them to hags (heggen) to whom men, who serve in the devil's court, are married. His most striking use of allegory is found in the passage where the Soul is represented as a Lady besieged in her castle and wooed by Our Lord under the guise of a Norman Knight.[19]

The commingling of Romance words with the English is very striking and can escape no ear trained to the niceties of literary resonance. They are not sufficiently numerous and hold too strictly to their original form; but they reflect the fondness of nearly all thirteenth century writers for foreign terms. This tendency, instead of being checked, has gone on increasing and is directly responsible for the complexity of our modern English. While the Ancren Riwle is not entirely free from the ancient fetters of early English prose, yet on the whole, it is coherent and displays a spontaneity and sincerity that give it a particular charm, a perennial freshness.

It is interesting to note that the articles have not yet come into the full possession of their powers to limit and give the final shadings of our modern speech. The intricacies, too, of word arrangement are not yet perfectly comprehended; but "we are charmed by this language which already contains so much art, and has so rich a history behind it; hence it strikes us as graceful, despite its clumsiness."[20] Atkins says: "Above all it is naïve."[21]

[17] Halleck, *History of English Literature*, p. 60.
[18] Cf. *Ancren Riwle*, King's Classics, pp. 148–54.
[19] Cf. *Ibid.*, pp. 294–95.
[20] Ten Brink, *Geschichte der Englischen Litteratur*, Vol. I, p. 237.
[21] *Early Trans. Eng.*, Camb. Hist. of Eng. Lit., Vol. I, p. 257.

(*To be continued*)

UNINTERRUPTED PROGRESS IN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS

The one business of the nation at present is to win the war for the freedom of the world. Our man-power, our food supplies, our industrial output, are all unreservedly dedicated to this end. Our ordinary mode of living has been profoundly disturbed, non-essential occupations are being suppressed, and progress in many lines must, of necessity, be checked. But in the midst of all this change, confusion, and arrest of development, that which is vital must not be neglected; the health of our people must be conserved, and the education of our children must suffer no hurt or postponement. The task of reconstructing the world after this present crisis will fall, in large measure, to those who are now in school, to the children, and they must be educated properly so that they may meet the situation; otherwise the world is likely to fall back into utter barbarism.

Very naturally, the demands of the war have checked the erection of school buildings; neither the labor nor the materials can well be spared during the present hour of crisis. But the teaching force should not desert its post; on the contrary, every teacher is called upon to put forth redoubled efforts for the more efficient discharge of the important duty entrusted to him—that of shaping the lives of the coming generation for the new burdens and responsibilities that it must bear—and this the real teacher is doing.

The supply of teachers for the public schools has been greatly diminished during the past year. Young women are entering the government service and taking the places of their brothers who have been called to the colors. Efforts are being made in many places to bring back into the service of the schools married women who were formerly teachers. But in spite of all this the shortage in trained teachers for our public schools threatens to be serious in the near future.

The situation in our Catholic schools differs markedly from that just outlined for the state schools. Of course, we have ceased to build parochial schools and colleges, but our teachers are religious whose life-work is education, and they will not abandon their posts for any other occupation, nor will they

diminish their efforts to improve themselves so that they may be able to render more and more efficient service in the noble cause which they have made their life-work.

The attitude of our Catholic teaching forces is well reflected in the Catholic Sisters' College, which has just brought to a close its seventh year of successful operation. War conditions have prevented the erection of several new convents on the grounds during the past year, but in spite of the hardships imposed upon the teaching communities through the enormous increase in the cost of living, they have not only continued to send the usual number of Sisters to the College for a more thorough training, but, realizing the demands that will inevitably be made upon our teaching Sisters at the close of the war, they have practically doubled the number of students at the College this year, the attendance having been one hundred three, whereas last year the registration was fifty-three students.

The Sisters attending the Sisters' College represent a very large number of the teaching Sisterhoods of the United States. The number of students, consequently, does not begin to adequately exhibit the significance of the work done in the College. The Sisters who come to the College are working for University degrees. They are, for the most part, teachers who have labored in the field for ten or more years, and upon returning to their communities they will help to spread the knowledge and to inculcate the ideals which they acquire during their residence. In this way the efficiency of the whole body of teaching Sisterhoods is being steadily increased and the standard of education in our schools is being constantly elevated.

During the past seven years it has become increasingly evident to all who are acquainted with the work in the College that the Sisters derive scarcely less benefit from the mingling of the various communities and interchange of experience than from the instruction offered by the University Professors. The fear sometimes expressed when the project was first discussed that the mingling of different communities in the same College would be likely to weaken the community spirit in the members of the several Sisterhoods has entirely disappeared. Each Sister student, while being broadened by contact with members

of other communities in her views of life and of Catholic education, is rendered more Catholic and more loyal to the ideals of her own community. The two thousand Sisters who are at present alumnae of the College constitute the best possible refutation for the imaginary doubts and fears concerning the effect which a sojourn in the College would have upon the Sister students.

His Excellency, Archbishop Bonzano, Apostolic Delegate to the United States, honored the College by his presence at its seventh annual Commencement, which was held on June 14. In the name of the Catholic University of America, he conferred degrees on sixty-three Sisters. At the conclusion he delivered an informal but inspiring address to the Sisters, in which he expressed his great pleasure at the rapid growth of the College and at the high character of the work which is being done within its walls. He was particularly pleased to note that the Sisters, while earning the highest degrees within the power of the University to confer, remained true religious and retained the humility characteristic of their state. He urged the candidates never to forget this fundamental truth and always to fulfill their duties as religious first and then to devote all the energy of their minds and bodies to the glorious work in which they were engaged.

The representative character of the student body of the College may be seen in the wide distribution as to community and location of the Sisters who received degrees at the hands of His Excellency.

The degree Bachelor of Arts was conferred on the following forty-one candidates: Sisters Mary Alexine and Mary Carlos, of the Sisters of Charity, Cincinnati, Ohio; Sister Bernardina, O.S.D., Mission San Jose, California; Sisters Mary Benedicta and Mary Estelle, O.S.D., Grand Rapids, Mich.; Sister Mary Servatis, O.S.D., Caldwell, N. J.; Sisters Mary Bonosa, O.S.F., Mary Gratiana and Mary Polycarp, O.S.F., Glen Riddle, Pa.; Sisters Mary Fidelis and Margaret Mary, O.S.F., Clinton, Iowa; Sisters Mary Leonilla and Mary Sixtus, O.S.F., Dubuque, Iowa; Mother St. Thomas, of the Sisters of the Holy Child, Sharon Hill, Pa.; Sisters Mary Eulalia and Mary Ursula, of the Sisters of the Holy Humility of Mary, Lowellville, Ohio;

Sisters Bernardine, Dulcissima and Edelwina, of the Sister Servants of the Holy Ghost, Techny, Ill.; Sister Mary Anthony, of the Sisters of St. Joseph, Wheeling, W. Va.; Sister Mary Athanasia, of the Sisters of St. Joseph of Carondelet, St. Louis, Mo.; Sisters Clare Joseph, Maria Kostka, Josefita Maria, and Mary Rosalia, of the Sisters of St. Joseph, Philadelphia, Pa.; Sister Mary Stanislaus, of the Sisters of St. Joseph, Hartford, Conn.; Sisters Mary Camillus, Mary Immaculata and Mary James, of the Sisters of Marcy, Wilkes-Barre, Pa.; Sister Mary Fides, of the Sisters of Mercy, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Sister Mary Grace, of the Sisters of Mercy, Manchester, N. H.; Sister Maria Magdalene, of the Sisters of Mercy, Hartford, Conn.; Sister Mary Stanislaus, of the Sisters of Mercy, Davenport, Iowa; Sisters Mary Angele and Mary Elise, of the Sisters of Mercy, Chicago, Ill.; Sister Mary Therese, of the Poor Handmaids of Jesus Christ, Fort Wayne, Ind.; Sister Mary Laurentina, of the Sisters of the Precious Blood, Maria Stein, Ohio; Sisters Mary Concepta and Mary Ursula, of the Ursulines, Cleveland, Ohio; Miss Margaret Gertrude Hickey, O'Neill, Nebr.

The successful completion of four years of college work, consisting of eighty courses of thirty hours each, is required for the A.B. degree at the Sisters' College. Half of this work must be done in residence, and a minimum of one academic year's residence in the College is required for all candidates for the A.B. degree.

In order to obtain the Master of Arts at the Sisters' College, the candidate must have an A.B. degree from a standard college and must spend a minimum of one academic year in residence in the Sisters' College. During that year she must take a minimum of twelve hours' class work a week and obtain satisfactory results in the courses pursued. Moreover, she must prepare a dissertation which will be acceptable to the Board of Studies and Discipline.

The degree of Master of Arts was conferred on the following twenty candidates. The titles of the dissertations give some idea of the fields in which the major work was pursued:

Sister Mary Resignata, B.V.M., Dubuque, Iowa, "Reduction of an Integral Containing as Its Sole Irrationality the Square

Root of a Quartic Function to the Standard Form;" Sister Mary Clarence, of the Sisters of Divine Providence, San Antonio, Texas, "Three Ideals in Educational Philosophy;" Sister Mary Corona, of the Sisters of Divine Providence, San Antonio, Texas, "Salient Features in the Historical Development of the Problem of Universals from the Carolingian Renaissance to the Triumph of Moderate Realism;" Sister Mary Raymond, O.S.D., Caldwell, N. J., "The Ancren Riwle;" Sister Vincent Ferrer, O.S.D., Sinsinawa, Wis., "Religious Policy of Mary the First, Queen of England;" Sister Marie Aileen, O.S.D., Sinsinawa, Wis., "Observations on the Drama in Our Catholic Schools;" Sister Mary Edith, O.S.F., Stella Niagara, N. Y., "Cardinal Newman's Ideals of Literature;" Sister Mary Florence, O.M.C., Manitowoc, Wis., "The Beginning of Monasticism in the West;" Sister Mary Generose, O.M.C., Manitowoc, Wis., "The Nature, Necessity and Means of the Training of Catholic Teachers;" Mother Mary Dismas, of the Sisters of the Holy Child, Sharon Hill, Pa., "Relations Between France and England During the Reign of Louis Philippe I, 1830–1848;" Sister Mary Ignatia, of the Sisters of the Holy Humility of Mary, Lowellville, Ohio, "The Part Homer Has Athene Play in the Composition of the Odyssey; "Sister Mary Leonilla, of the Sisters of St. Joseph of Carondelet, St. Louis, Mo., "The Preternatural and the Supernatural in Shakespeare;" Sister Mary Patricia, of the Sisters of St. Joseph of Carondelet, St. Paul, Minn., "The Holy Alliance: Its Character and Results;" Sister Mary Aloysius, of the Sisters of Mercy, Hartford, Conn., "Peace Laws and Institutions of Medieval France;" Sister Mary Angele, of the Sisters of Mercy, Chicago, Ill., "Educational Aspects of the Medieval Craft Gilds;" Sister Mary Annette, of the Sisters of Mercy, Hartford, Conn., "Mental Imagery in Shakespeare;" Sister Mary Rosa, of the Sisters of Mercy, Hartford, Conn., "The Laws of Attention as Illustrated in the Liturgy of the Church;" Sister Mary Elise, of the Sisters of Mercy, Chicago, Ill., "Expression of the Arts of Certain Curves by Means of Elliptic Integrals and Some Results Connected Therewith;" Sister Mary Gonzaga, of the Poor Handmaids of Jesus Christ, Fort Wayne, Ind., "Johann Joseph Görres, Romanticist and Mystic;" Sister Mary Grace, of the

Sisters of the Precious Blood, Maria Stein, Ohio, "The Numerical Calculation of Elliptic Integrals of the First and Second Classes by Means of Landen's Transformation."

The Catholic University, during the thirty years of its existence, has conferred the degree of Doctor of Philosophy on very few candidates. This year the Sisters' College presented two candidates for this degree—Sister Mary Jeanette, O.S.B., St. Joseph, Minn., who presented as her thesis "Vocational Preparation of Youth in Catholic Schools," and Sister Mary Agnes, of the Sisters of Charity, Cincinnati, Ohio, who presented a dissertation under the title, "Archbishop Purcell and the Archdiocese of Cincinnati."

Sister Mary Agnes obtained the degree Bachelor of Arts at Mount St. Mary's of the West in 1880. Two years ago she celebrated the Golden Jubilee of her entrance into religion. Her two splendid volumes on "The Daughters of Mother Seton" are widely and favorably known to students of the History of the Church in this country.

The work of the Sisters' College more than justifies its claim upon the generosity of our Catholic people. This institution is unifying and building up our teaching forces, and in no other way can the friends of Catholic education contribute so effectively to the efficiency of our Catholic schools throughout the country as by lending their support to this institution. The Sisters receive a meager salary, which cannot be called a compensation, for their work in educating our children. And while the cost of living has more than doubled within the last two years, the Sisters' stipend has not been advanced proportionately. Moreover, the academies and boarding schools which are even more immediately concerned in the work of the Sisters' College have to meet the enormous increase in expense of running the school without being able to raise the cost of board and tuition. It is surprising, therefore, that in spite of these hardships the attendance at the College doubled last year.

The Patrick Garvan Endowment of Fifty Thousand Dollars, dedicated by his children to the teaching Sisterhoods of America, has enabled the College to keep the expense for board and tuition down to a low figure during the past year. But during the coming year the rapid rise in the cost of food will compel

the College to add Fifty Dollars to the stipend charged. It is to be hoped that the friends of the Sisters and of Catholic education in this country will contribute sufficient funds to the College to enable it to restore its former stipend. Our Catholic people are generous purchasers of Liberty Bonds. In this way they give proof of their patriotism, and they may give proof of their loyalty to their devoted teachers by donating these bonds as an endowment fund to the Sisters' College.

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

THE PROBLEMS AHEAD

A year ago this June, with our entry into the war a scant two months past, educators everywhere in America were taking sober thought of the future and the problems which probably would follow upon the dislocation of our normal mode of life. In general, their thought followed two fairly well-defined channels. First, it was evident that in the higher branches of education there would be a much diminished number of pupils and consequently a very serious financial burden to be anticipated and provided for. Second, the turning of the thought of the country to war meant a definite change in the attitude of the country toward education, and that education not only would undergo fundamental changes during war time, but would have to begin immediately to prepare for the still greater changes inevitable upon the conclusion of peace.

The first problem, as the more obvious and pressing, received the first and the larger attention. It presented two phases. To the institutions for the higher branches of education, the first of these phases—decreased attendance—was positively menacing. The academies and colleges for women anticipated the worst—and the best befell them. Institutions for the higher education of women have enjoyed the largest enrollments in their history. It is a most interesting phenomenon. It was the colleges, and even in some cases the secondary schools, for men that bore the brunt of the blow. The average loss in enrollment has been about 37 per cent, rising in many instances to 50 per cent and over. With increased cost of all materials and of labor, with depreciation in the value of securities, with heavy war taxes upon many factors of their endowment fund, and with dangerously lowered revenues from students, the colleges and the universities, except those receiving state aid, expected and encountered a desperate year. For them the worst is yet to come, and they are preparing in unusual ways for the unusual difficulties ahead.

The grammar schools were of course little concerned with financial problems last June, beyond their ordinary local diffi-

culties. Their problem would probably be social,[1] if the experience of other wars was to be relied upon. Yet the year was not half over before the financial problem had begun to affect the grammar school in a very serious and totally unexpected way. The high and rapidly increasing cost of living had been for several years a matter of very grave concern to college and university faculties, who have been notoriously underpaid. By December, 1917, the situation had become universal. Grammar grade teachers were leaving the classrooms by the hundreds to take the more remunerative positions in the war service offered to them by the government. Those who did not enter war service undertook industrial occupations at materially advanced salaries. An immediate shortage of teachers was created at a point where the demand for their services not only was normal but slightly increasing. The result could only be what actually has happened. Unprepared, or at best inexperienced, recruits are taking their places; in many schools the classes have been doubled, with a decreased efficiency in teaching as the result in a direct ratio; in every school the problem is how to maintain the present standards;

[1] It is infinitely harder for children to develop properly in a time of war than it is in a time of peace. In Great Britain, for example, there has been a great increase in juvenile delinquency. The number of children arrested and brought before the courts for breaking the law is larger by 40 per cent than before the war. This is partly because of the absence of the fathers from home, partly because in the first throes of mobilization many of the schools were closed, the buildings being used by the military, and partly because boys and girls by the thousands went to work in munitions factories and other war enterprises at an age when they ought still to have been living a sheltered life.

The lesson which this should teach the people of the United States is that children must continue in school as long as possible. Moreover, according to a study made by the Massachusetts Commission on Industrial and Technical Education, 98 per cent of the boys and girls in that state who go to work between the ages of fourteen and fifteen engage in unskilled or low grade industries. Thus they have little opportunity for training or advancement. This is corroborated by a report issued by the United States Bureau of Education which shows that a high school graduate earns on the average $1,000 a year as against $500 earned by a poorly educated workman. The National Child Labor Committee has published statistics indicating that a trained worker, eighteen years of age, earns ten dollars a week as compared with seven dollars a week received by an untrained worker of the same age. At twenty-five years the difference is much greater—being thirty-one dollars weekly for the trained worker as against fourteen dollars for the untrained worker.—*This Side the Trenches with the American Red Cross*, A. R. C., 203, pages 23-24.

and in the thought of every educator there arises the additional question "how can these present standards be even improved to meet the needs of a greater hour than we have so far known in our history as a world nation?"

Merely to increase the salaries of teachers to a living wage will not meet the difficulty. That must be done, of course, and in justice it should be done promptly. The United States Bureau of Education, and all the important organizations of teachers, are unanimously in favor of such an increase and are conducting a vigorous propaganda in its behalf. At the same time, however, they are insisting that the adequate training of new teachers, and the effective supervision of the methods and the materials employed by those now in the service, are imperative. No greater mistake could be made than to fill the gap with unseasoned recruits, unseasoned in the things of the mind. Necessarily they will be somewhat unseasoned in experience, but that is a trifling handicap. It is proper training that determines their availability and value. Nor is it any moment for relaxed vigilance over the materials and the methods common to the teachers who have been already long in the service. If anything, it were an excellent time to begin quiet changes looking to the future. Certainly it were a contradiction in terms, at an hour when all the world is in training, to be slothful or remiss in one important line along which the world must make its future advance.

The colleges and the universities have in a measure shared this difficulty with the lower schools, for they have been stripped of many of their best teachers by the exigencies of war, and have been even somewhat embarrassed by their financial obligations to those who have remained. Their gravest and most acute problem, however, has been the inevitable and staggering losses of their students into the government service. Not one of the colleges or the universities would have it otherwise, and their pride and joy increases as the number of their losses grows. They have been tried and have not been found wanting. Soberly are they taking thought, however, for the days that lie just ahead. With the spectacle before them of the echoing courts of Oxford and of Cambridge, and the empty halls of Paris, Lyons, Nancy, Aix, and Toulouse—God spare us a Louvain!—our leaders of university education are making

ready to ride out the storm. Princeton, living up magnificently to the ideal set for her a decade and a half ago by her greatest son—who is our President of the United States—the ideal of "Princeton for the Nation's service," took and holds the van with the number of her students and graduates at the war, and now has taken a step in which she is being followed by two other universities, and will be followed soon by many more who have been watching the departure with acute interest. This step is in effect the complete conversion of Princeton into a military establishment, with just sufficient emphasis on purely academic pursuits to preserve Princeton's conservative university tradition and character.

A recent address by Dr. Hibben, the present president, sets forth Princeton's purpose and ideal very clearly. 'To meet the changed conditions under which we live,' he said, 'Princeton instituted this military course to prepare her students for the most effective possible patriotic service and at the same time to permit them to continue their academic work and receive their degrees in three years. The military course is designed to continue in large part Princeton's policy of giving a liberal education, about 80 per cent of the studies in the new program having a distinct academic value. In its military aspects, the most prominent feature of the new course is its disciplinary value. From the beginning of the war, the conviction has been growing here at home that what the American type of youth lacks more than anything else to meet the duties of an officer is a sense of discipline. If we are to meet successfully,' Dr. Hibben argues, 'a nation that has imposed upon its subjects an iron military discipline for forty years, our young men must learn the lesson of willing and instant obedience. All the students taking the military course at Princeton will therefore be under strict military discipline. They will get up in the morning at the sound of the bugle, they will eat together at the Commons in squads, they will march to and from their classes, and when their day's work is done they will go to bed at the bugle's call.' It is all a very radical change in Princeton's life, as one old-timer especially remembers it, and it means the voluntary surrender "for the Nation's service" of ways and habits that made residence on the campus of old Nassau a thing of joy and a perfect memory in after years.

It is a splendid thing, and of course the obvious thing, though still splendid for all of that. It will have its pleasures, and it will have its satisfactions, in increased service to the nation. It solves, as well, what otherwise was fast becoming a hopeless problem. It is more than probable that Princeton's example will be followed rapidly, in the coming year, by the other colleges and universities. All of them have instituted military training in one form or another. Regimented, while liberal, discipline will inevitably be their final step in full preparation for the hours that lie ahead. As a colonel in our regular army has aptly put the thought now in the minds of the universities: "Only when the whole nation is disciplined will America be ready to take a proper part in the war."

It is the new discipline of the nation that forms the second problem for education, and the recognition of this problem has only gradually come about. Educators were aware, a year ago, that changes would inevitably come and that it were wise to begin at once the preparation for the future. It took time and experiments and unhappy experiences to bring these generalities to a definite focus upon the real problem. As a result. after a year and two months of war, we are now at the stage where we admit the existence of the problem but are still decidedly uncertain about ways and means of solving it.

Those in the forefront of our patriotic thought have been alert to the danger of alien tongues and the consequent alien thought of considerable groups of our population. The United States Bureau of Education, certain of our educational organizations, and the Council of National Defense, have united in a campaign to break down all the barriers of alien language in this country, barriers whose dangerous proportions we are only now beginning to realize. These barriers are certainly among the first of the problems that lie ahead. We may not walk around them, unless we wish to leave them a menace at our back. They must be removed, and their erection, again, be made forever impossible. To accomplish this, three things are necessary. The first is a more perfect and thorough and intensive teaching and study of our English tongue. In the grades it must be so taught that not only will it be spoken without trace of foreign accent, but it will become also the preferred tongue, because the more attractive and the really

American. The second measure is a serious, well-reasoned and thoroughgoing system of education for the bulk of our immigrants, an education designed to teach them our language, our institutions and our ideals in a fashion which will bind them to us with hoops of steel. Attractive night schools, with English well taught, would be essential elements in such a program. The third measure has to do with our adult illiterates. The power to understand and to discuss intelligently the affairs of the commonwealth depend, in our time, very largely here in America upon knowledge of the printed word. Illiteracy is a menace to our state, and in our solicitude for our immigrant population we must not forget those of our own household. If there is to be any barrier of language in our country, it must not be of our own erecting. The only barrier of language we could properly devise would be the barrier of our own English tongue, raised against all alien, backward-looking, disloyal, or unfriendly thought. We must think as one people; we must speak as one people. It is, therefore, one of the most urgent and supreme problems of education at this hour to train us into a nation of a common tongue.

Training in citizenship is the next of the problems, although by no means a new problem. Such training has always been one of the ends of education. It has acquired a new significance, however, and a deeper meaning. It has now revealed its vitally important phase of *duty*, whereas we were somewhat inclined to think of it chiefly in terms of privileges. It has become a stern thing, and therefore sterner teaching of it is necessary. The term has also deepened its meaning to include supreme devotion and sacrifice; it has become a spiritual concept. In a word, education must, of necessity, now put a spiritual construction upon the hitherto somewhat glib and easy phrase, "training in citizenship;" must admit the influence of prayer on history, and the force of religious ideals in the shaping of human destinies. It may even come so far as to appreciate the essential soundness of our Catholic position, and take thought of itself how the present fatal gap may be filled and an ethical sense supplied. It is surely no chance or accident of circumstance that men professing the Catholic faith should decisively outnumber the men of any other belief in our American armies. It argues a training in citizenship in which

there is a thorough understanding of the value of spiritual things; it justifies every sacrifice that has been made, every double burden that has been borne, in order that we might work out in our own schools our own conviction that religion and education go hand in hand towards citizenship.

The spiritual is, of course, not the only, although perhaps the most important, phase of the problem of training in citizenship. A new point of view has been made necessary by the swift march of events since 1914, and even since 1917, both here and abroad. Geography, history, politics, science, law, all the complex and involved factors which enter so intimately into the life, development and destiny of modern nations, are undergoing daily changes which must inevitably work corresponding changes in our thought. For the United States the changes have been fundamental and radical. We have come a very long way in an incredibly brief space of time. We are becoming a nation, and we are already international. Our state of isolation has dropped from us like a cloak, never to be returned. Though without entangling alliances, we are yet part of a world confederacy of peoples and must think and act as a member of this group, determining our policy and regulating our conduct not only by our own interests but also in relation to the other free peoples with whom we are allied. It is a fact of which education must take immediate account. Geography can no longer be suffered to become a dry and necessary bore; it is too terribly important, now that the fate of nations hangs upon boundary lines, water transport, and fertility of soil. Maps are plastic things now, and all the world has gone to studying them. The improved and effective study of this one subject alone is a genuine concern of education for the coming years. The teaching of history, in the light of the new revelations forced by the war, is an even more present and important concern. First of all, it is necessary to stop presenting all the pleasant illusions that have passed current among us for so long as "popular" history. Romantic versions of history are an ill diet for young minds, and they weaken patriotism at its source through a false sense of national security or superiority. The plain truth contains little we need be ashamed of and a host of things to be inordinately proud of; coloring them and making them "appetizing" is an altogether mistaken piece of

patriotism. In the second place, it is absolutely imperative that our history and world history should be so taught and so studied in these times that the age-long struggle of peoples toward liberty and democracy becomes real and vivid to our young people, and they are impressed with their own potential part in it. They must be brought to realize that the appeal to brutality, pagan warfare, and ruthless force is something to be resisted to the death, and that any government which exalts that appeal is a living menace to free peoples and free institutions. Not only that, but the relation of our country to the other free nations of the world must be made plain to them in new and far more effective ways. Their future depends upon a right understanding of the part they will have to play upon the world's stage in the coming years of peace—a part far wider and fraught with deeper consequences than any their elders have known or experienced for generations. In simple justice to them, and out of honest devotion to our country, we must prepare them for their destiny. They are growing up into a world of group forces, a world becoming yearly more highly organized and including more and more the territories and the peoples of the whole world. The idea of a league of nations to secure discipline and enforce peace is only one familiar aspect of this development. It extends widely and deeply into social thought everywhere, and education must take immediate account of it as a force which is already altering profoundly the whole face of the world.

Indeed, the old order everywhere is giving place to the new. We are living now under a new law—the law of sacrifice. All our luxurious surroundings of life, all our fancied ease and security, all our outward trappings of patriotism are being stripped from us one by one. There is only one business, only one profession, only one occupation that has any longer any justification—*the winning of the war*. There is neither room nor patience left for unnecessary things. The fads, the fancies, the "interesting experiments" in education, are altogether out of place, and education is on trial for its fitness to the needs of the hour, partly because of these very fads and fancies, and not only because we are scrutinizing everything, sparing nothing. It is now only too evident that education was in no small meas-

ure unprepared to contribute at the outset its full share toward the winning of the war. The percentage of physical unfitness, the extraordinary lack of a sense of discipline and obedience, the general public haziness of mind and information about foreign peoples and the geography of foreign countries, were just so many symptoms of a state of affairs against which there had been heard voices crying in the wilderness for over a decade. The war was a rude but healthful awakening. It is only to be expected that our self-reform after learning our lesson will be slow, but it is encouraging that it has already begun.

Perhaps, in essence, we have only one great educational problem definitely ahead and one terrible object lesson to consider in the process of arriving at our new conclusions. That problem is, first of all, how to readjust education to war-time conditions, and afterwards to reorganize it radically into harmony with the new order which will ensue upon the coming of peace. Some of the steps have already been taken, or at least are contemplated, for the first part of this program. It were idle and still too soon to speculate at present about the after-war program. The other thing, beyond our immediate and present concerns, which may profitably occupy us now in preparation for the future is to study the object lesson—the horrible record of Germany's part in the war and its direct relation to the doctrines taught in the schools of Germany for the past forty years. Such deeds of savagery and their approval by a whole nation are not the outcome of chance. They are the result of a deliberate philosophy, a philosophy so pagan and brutal that the unmasking of it is a blessing for us amid all the tragedy. If it moves us to examine and renew our own ideals, if it spurs us to a fresh conviction of the truth and nobility of our own political faith and the rightness of our institutions, if it inspires us to sacrifice and courage and to the high resolve that we will crush out forever from the world the new paganism that is challenging us to battle, then all the suffering and bloodshed and sacrifice will not have been in vain and the future will hold secure for our children and our children's children the heritage we had the strength of soul to purchase for them.

THOMAS QUINN BEESLEY.

THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES

The fifth biennial session of the National Conference of Catholic Charities will be held at the Catholic University, Washington, September 15 to 18. The entire program will be devoted to the bearing of war conditions on relief work. All who are familiar with the far-reaching consequences of the war in the whole field of charity recognize the imperative need of studying the situation and of devising wise policies to guide us. On this account, the Conference will undertake in its program a careful survey of the new problems which confront all volunteer effort in the field of relief.

The topics for the general meetings of the Conference will be as follows: "The Patriotism of Charity," "The Federal Government in Relief Work During and After the War," "The American Red Cross in Relief Work During and After the War," Private Relief Agencies in War Conditions," "The National Council of Defense in Relief Work," "The Present and the Future Mission of the Catholic Charities Review," "Women's Activities in Catholic Relief Work," "The Catholic Woman's Opporunity," "The Aims and Methods of the National Travelers' Aid Society."

The committee topics are as follows:

Committee on Families—"The Relation of the American Red Cross and Private Agencies in Work Among Dependent Families," "Safeguarding the Self-respect and Sense of Responsibility of Soldiers and Sailors," "Food Conservation in Relief Work," "War Prices and Relief Work."

Committee on Children—"The Federal Children's Bureau: Its Methods and Services to Relief Work," "The Effect of War Conditions on Work Among Children," "The Problem of Illegitimacy in Normal and in War Conditions," "Policies of Public and Private Institutions in Dealing with Illegitimacy."

Committee on Sick and Defectives—"The Rehabilitation of Crippled and Disabled Soldiers from the Standpoints of the Government, the Employer, the Medical Profession and the Laborer," "Governmental and Private Hospital Care of Sick

and Disabled Soldiers," "Organized Visitation of Soldiers in Hospitals."

Committee on Social and Civic Activities—"Prevailing Standards of Living and Labor in the United States," "War Industries and Labor Legislation," "Social Reconstruction After the War," "The Social Worker's Relation to Reconstruction."

Committee on Women's Activities—"Protection of Young Girls, with Special Reference to War Conditions," "Causes of Delinquency," "Methods of Dealing with the Delinquent Girl."

A Committee on Delinquency will be formed in the near future. Its program and that of the Diocesan Directors of Charities will be announced in the near future.

On account of hotel conditions in Washington, arrangements have been made to house all of the delegates to the Conference and provide board for them at the Catholic University. Those who expect to attend the Conference are advised to secure traveling accommodations well in advance of the dates of the Conference. They are advised also to notify the Secretary of the Conference of their intention to attend, in order that accommodations may be provided at the University.

All Catholics interested in relief work may attend all sessions of the Conference and take part in its deliberations. The Conference never votes on any question of policy in relief work. It invites untrammeled expression of views and most careful investigation of results in the field of relief. Approximately thirty states and eighty cities are represented in the attendance at the biennial meetings.

Inquiries concerning the forthcoming meeting, reports of past sessions and membership may be addressed to the Secretary, National Conference of Catholic Charities, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

PRIMARY METHODS

There is a growing realization among educators in general that our schools over-emphasize the process of getting in all its aspects, and that they fail to emphasize sufficiently the process of giving. George Washington and the founders of this republic saw and clearly stated the necessity of the diffusion of knowledge for the maintenance of the republic. And while this view has been repeatedly modified until it has come to be formulated in other words, such as that the existence of a republic demands the education of its citizens, the original viewpoint is not wholly lost. The teacher seems to think or to act upon the subconscious conviction that if the right sort of knowledge in sufficient quantity be poured into the child's mind, or rather into the child's memory, somehow or other this knowledge will issue in worthy conduct and effective citizenship, and the process of education will be completed. Yet it would be difficult to find a competent educator who would undertake to restrict the educative process to the loading of the memory with items of knowledge. An understanding of the knowledge required is admitted in theory, at least, by all to be quite essential.

There is one exception to the above rule to be met with occasionally in our Catholic schools. Teachers are sometimes found there who insist that the child shall memorize the formal definitions of the catechism, whether he understands them or not. Of course, such a teacher hopes that the child will some day understand these formulae, that the meaning will somehow emerge from this crystalline shell in the hour of need. She even tries to define and explain the words used in the formulae in the hope that in this way some glimmering of the inner meaning may reach the child's present intelligence.

In the teaching of arithmetic, indeed, there may occasionally be found, in both public schools and Catholic schools, teachers who require their pupils to memorize the rules first, which they then proceed to explain and illustrate. In this way they seek to make the non-understood memory-load function so that the child may obtain the right answer and be satisfied, even though he should fail to comprehend the various steps by which his

correct answer has been reached. But educational science in our day has really gone far beyond this stage under the guidance of psychology. It does, in fact, require the shifting of emphasis from the impression to the expression, from acquisition to use.

Of course a child cannot use a thing until he possesses it. But it is equally true that he does not really possess a truth until he begins to express it or to use it. It is in such expression, in fact, that the truth is lifted into the mind and organized, hence what is given to the child must in nature and form be adjusted to the child's present need of expression. He must not, it is true, be required to express that which he does not possess. But it is equally true that his progress will be retarded by attempting to hold in memory a large quantity of unexpressed truth, or even a small quantity, for an undue length of time. If, therefore, we would increase rapidly the child's store of functional truth we must direct him in finding adequate ways of expressing the truth which he is receiving.

It is scarcely necessary to call attention to the fact that while the truth we are here pointing out is in the light of modern psychology seen as a fundamental demand on education, it is not a new discovery. Our Lord repeatedly emphasized the principle for which we are here contending, namely, that a truth must come forth in action or expression or it cannot maintain itself in the life of man. "For there is nothing hid, which shall not be made manifest: neither was it made secret, but that it may come abroad. If any man have ears to hear, let him hear. And He said to them: Take heed what you hear. In what measure you shall meet, it shall be measured to you again, and more shall be given to you. For he that hath, to him shall be given: and he that hath not, that also which he hath shall be taken away from him" (Mark IV, 22-25). It was a similar line of thought that led to His cursing the barren fig tree, and to His establishing expression as a means by which we might know the inmost content of any life. "By their fruits therefore shall ye know them." This is still more clearly expressed at the conclusion of the parable of the talents, "Well done, good and faithful servant, because thou hast been faithful over a few things will I place thee over

many things: Enter thou into the joy of thy Lord" (Matt. XXV, 23). Here increase follows upon and is proportioned to expression, and this is declared to be a fundamental law of life, sweeping under its control all that lives, from the lowliest creature of earth to the highest of created beings. Expression is therefore seen to constitute the measure of acquisition. In the same parable our Lord proceeds to state the other aspect of the principle under consideration, namely, that what is acquired and left unexpressed will disintegrate, and not only be lost but will inflict injury upon the possessor. The servant who received one talent, in returning it to his master said, "Being afraid I went and hid thy talent in the earth: behold, here thou hast that which is thine. And his lord, answering, said to him: Wicked and slothful servant, thou knewest that I reap where I sow not, and gather where I have not strewed: Thou oughtest therefore to have committed my money to the bankers, and at my coming I should have received my own with usury. Take ye away therefore the talent from him, and give it him that hath ten talents. For to everyone that hath shall be given, and he shall abound: but from him that hath not that also which he seemeth to have shall be taken away. And the unprofitable servant cast ye out into exterior darkness. There shall be weeping and gnashing of teeth" (Matth. XXV, 25-30).

When the child lays hold of a truth which the teacher seeks to impart it remains sterile until he gives it expression, but in the act of expression the truth is enlarged and the child, without the teacher's aid, lays hold of related truths in an intimate way which could never have come from mere teaching. The fuller and more adequate the child's expression the greater will be this increment. If, however, the child fails to express a truth imparted to him, whether this failure be due to the form given the truth by the teacher or to the fact that the child mind is not yet ready to receive it, the truth will not only disintegrate or be taken away from him, but in its disintegration it will injure his mind and prevent its normal growth along other lines. We see this psychological truth in our Lord's method of teaching. "And He taught them in parables. That seeing they may not see, and hearing they may not understand." That is, He planted the kernels of divine truth which will un-

fold in due time through the cooperation of those who receive, and bring forth fruit an hundred fold. Form is here adjusted to the capacity of the receiver. That He also awaits until the developing mind is ready is illustrated and stated in the Gospel many times. Even at the end His declaration was: "I have many things to say to you, but you cannot bear them now." The child only seems to possess the truth which he has failed to express, whether this failure be due to the untimeliness of the truth or to the unsuitableness of the form in which it is presented, and as in the case of the wicked servant, it will be taken away from him and bring condemnation to him.

It was pointed out in a previous installment that, in learning to read, the child should first express through action the meaning of the utterance written on the board. He then, through his imitative tendency, seeks to reproduce the utterance in writing. Both of these forms of expression, as was pointed out, deepen and render permanent the visual image of the written utterance. The child is then led to give a third form of expression to the sentence in oral speech. But, since the method requires that the words employed be already familiar to the child in their oral form, this third mode of expression finds its chief value in correlating the auditory and visual images, and combining them in one mental structure, which is taking its proper place in the developing mind of the child.

The next step to be achieved involves the play of imagination and seeks to utilize it in sublimating the sensory motor imagery acquired. In this step imitation plays an important rôle, but the copy to be imitated should be in large part a product of the imagination. Moreover, the social element becomes prominent at this stage, and the chief desire on the part of the pupil must be to make others see as he himself sees, not the things of sense alone, but the things that dwell within his own consciousness. Dramatization is the only name we possess for this form of expression.

Dramatization as a mode of child expression is exceedingly valuable, both as a means of leading the child into an understanding of the phenomena which surrounds him and as a means of transcending the merely material elements resulting from sensory motor expression. It is prized still more by many

because of its socializing power. It has often been said that cruelty is possible only in the absence of imagination, and in a sense this is true, for any one who vividly puts himself in the place of another sentient creature will thereby be turned aside from the infliction of needless pain.

Dramatization employs another element which is very strong in the young child, and which continues with him in changed forms and diminished intensity throughout life. This is usually spoken of as the play instinct, but it might well be put in the plural and be called the play instincts, because it is really a group of impulses or tendencies with which we are here dealing, instead of one restricted and clearly defined instinct.

In the early stages of infancy the child explores his surroundings. At two years of age a normal, healthy child spends most of his waking hours in reacting more or less indiscriminately upon everything in his environment. He pulls open drawers and doors, handles any books that may be within his reach, breaks up the bric-a-brac if he can attain to it, and seeks to bring various modes of reaction from the people of his environment by his wiles and his tears. As a matter of fact, he can understand nothing in his environment until he reacts upon it. It is this action of his that gives him an insight; it is his muscle sense that teaches his eye to see into the depth of things. Hence, he needs no organized play. In the second stage, the constructive or organizing instinct begins to show itself. He will build houses out of corn-cobs, and forts out of sand, and pies out of mud. In his labors, imagination awakens and shows him glimmerings of things that are not seen, and leads him to create a world of invisible people with whom he converses and plays his various games. The tendency to merely handle things now gives place to creative processes by which he dowers all things with personality, and attributes to them feelings and emotions as well as skill and action along the lines of his growing knowledge. He is scarcely conscious of limitations, hence he is incapable of being surprised. His people can fly through the air with any witch; he can turn himself at will into a locomotive, a fire-engine, an old broken down cart horse, a bird, or a fairy. He finds no difficulty in a trip to the moon. Imagination carries him on her wings, and shows him worlds that are unknown to sober adults.

A little later, the boy of six has subdued his play instinct into an instrument for the attainment of definite ends. It helps him to match his fellows in strength, in swiftness of foot and in keenness of vision, no less than in physical strength and endurance. His play is organized into games involving more or less calculation and the employment of means to an end. But the old function of play as a tutor has not yet ceased. In the classroom, when he obeys the injunction on the board, "Run to the door," "Fly around the room," or to personify a bird, giving three hops or three chirps, play is leading him into the mastery of written language, and endowing him with a keener insight into the life and actions of his fellow-creatures.

From obeying such injunctions as the above to dramatization in a very real sense is an easy step which the child takes, being scarcely conscious of transition. His early dramas are exceedingly brief. They are full of action, but they imply the cooperation of several, and the drama seeks to convey inward meanings to eye and ear. Feeling and emotion, no less than cognitive elements, enter into the simplest of his dramas, and in them they remain united, thus giving to the dramatic expression of the child a force and a naturalness which often might well be envied by the adult.

The elements entering into the child's dramatic presentation are the same as those which entered into the race, and out of which many of the highest things in literature, the plastic arts and music have arisen.

Gestures must have helped primitive man to convey his meanings to members of strange tribes who spoke an unknown tongue. The gestures were imitations of postures or actions. These were finally reduced to crude pictures, and issued eventually in idiograms. The conventionalized pictures were finally organized into such ideographic languages as those used at present by the Chinese and the Japanese. It would seem highly probable, at least, that the alphabet arose from a still further development in this direction, in which the purely arbitrary symbol was made to take the place of the ideogram.

While written language was growing out of dramatic postures or gestures, spoken language was being enriched in a similar way. The highest development of this tendency re-

sulted in song and instrumental music. Without pausing here to trace the process step by step, it may be stated, without danger of straying far from historical verity, that the plastic arts, letters and music are the children of the drama. But, however this may be, it is certain that the dramatic art furnishes the best early foundation in childhood for the fine arts in question. In no other way than by first dramatizing it can the child learn with equal facility to give the right expression to what he reads, for the simple reason that in no other way can he so fully attain to the meaning of what he reads, while arousing in himself the proper emotional setting for the thought which is being expressed. In no other way can he comprehend with anything like equal force the symbolism of the plastic arts, for it is only by putting himself in the attitude and assuming the facial expression of the sculptured or painted figure that he can gain an insight into what these attitudes express.

It has been sometimes said that the artists of the Middle Ages created the great Gothic cathedrals to form a fitting setting or background for the liturgical drama, and, while this is in a sense true, it should not be forgotten that it was the liturgical drama which in a very real sense created the outward setting of the temple, just as it is the soul that builds the human body and radiates from the human countenance. One would fail to understand much of the symbolic art that crowds the stained glass windows, the naves and porches of the cathedral who knew nothing of the religious procession and the liturgical drama that were familiar to the artists of these days. The Gothic cathedral at its highest has been described as "frozen music," but it might far more aptly be described as the "frozen liturgy of the Church." For if you trace back the origin of the sculptured prophets and apostles, of angels and archangels, of Christ and His Blessed Mother, and of the multitudes of saints that greet you in the Gothic cathedral, you will find that they have almost literally stepped out of the drama that was enacted during the liturgical year.

That music grew out of the liturgy is a commonplace in the history of the art. Words are wholly inadequate to express the deeper emotions. It is only through music that the Church is

enabled to give adequate expression to her emotions when contemplating the great sacrifice of her Redeemer. On the great stational days in Rome all the clergy and the faithful of the Holy City gathered round their pontiff and marched in solemn procession to the stational church. They wished to express their joy and gratitude for some mystery of faith or for the triumph of a martyr; but were the procession in silence it would be expressive of anything but joy. From the very earliest days the liturgy was composed in large measure of psalms, antiphons and hymns sung by specially trained singers and by the entire congregation. Indeed, so prominent was the element of music in the liturgical drama that a singing school was one of the first appointments of each episcopal see.

From conisderations such as the foregoing we may readily deduce that the art of dramatization holds a fundamental place in the development of the child's mind and character. It helps to socialize him. It develops and directs his emotions. It leads him into a mastery of expressive reading. It develops in him the only natural and adequate foundation for an understanding of literature, art and music. It is indeed strange that so important an element in the child's education has been hitherto given such a scanty place in the schoolroom. However, psychology is now demanding imperatively that this phase of development be not neglected in the early days of childhood. It is the task and the privilege of the first grade teacher to lay the foundation of what must be carried on in an appropriate manner through all the subsequent phases of the educative process. In the first grade a stage is not required and the properties may be reduced to the simplest elements, but if success is to be attained, the matter must not be left to haphazard. Sympathy and imagination are called for in the teacher. She probably will need some definite instruction and it will certainly require time and patient study on her part to give to the dramatizations of the first grade the naturalness and charm which will make them effective with the little ones.

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

THE TEACHER OF ENGLISH

"BOOKS THAT HAVE INFLUENCED ME MOST"

This subject seems to have regained a fresh interest in the minds of the public during the past few months.

In a recent book review by a well-known critic occurred the statement that the average public man was not sincere in his contention that such and such a book had exerted a strong influence on his life and character.

He goes on to say that in giving out data for a few lines in "Who's Who," or for a leading article in his home paper, said article being read mostly by himself and family, a prominent man will assert that his favorite reading is "Pilgrim's Progress," William Shakespeare, or the Bible.

Not that these books have entered largely into his mental diversions, but he feels that if he does not read them and enjoy them, at least he should do so. And the critic contends that the millionaire business man, noted Wall Street financier, or successful shipbuilder never even read any of these books, or, in fact, any other literary works of note, confining his efforts in this line to the current magazines and city daily papers, and nevertheless he has attained worldly success.

Now all of this may be quite true, and yet not prove the case against the value of diligent reading of the great books, or books in general. For the point lies in your definition of a *successful man*. A man may be a very great success in business, and be a complete failure as a man, that is, in reaching the fullest stature of manhood in virtues and achievements not measured in dollars and cents. As a matter of fact, the men whose names have gone down in history as of the greatest benefit to their fellow-man, leaving inventions, books, and examples of heroic conduct to hearten those who came after them, have been generally unable to attain the highest success in business, their lives, on the whole, having been characterized by a conspicuous inability to have two and two always make four in their financial calculations, being just as apt to make five or three.

Regardless of any one person's opinion on the subject, the fact remains that books do influence us—the books we read

and the books we do not read. A man who does not read books has a very different outlook on life, is, indeed, a very different individual in his judgments and friendships than the same man would be were he a consistent reader of literature, past and present. That this influence, in most cases, is not a conscious one is granted. Unfortunately, the books we read in our early youth are selected largely by chance, those put in our way by environment, accident or companions of the hour.

We, ourselves, spent many hours poring over a ragged old copy of Grimm's Fairy Tales, borrowed from the attic book shelves of a big house in the neighborhood. Our mother disapproved of the Fairy Tales because our small brother was so wrought up over our reading them to him at night that he cried out in terror and refused thereafter to go to bed in the dark. But our interest was only increased by this ban on the book itself. And one deep impression was printed on our mind which persists to the present day, namely, that the beautiful innocent maiden is always rescued in the end, and the brave and daring hero of generous actions and unshakable integrity is finally rewarded with a beautiful bride and untold riches. The fact that it sometimes took one hundred years to accomplish this, ere the fairy sleep was broken and the villain punished, did not depress us in the least.

The life of St. Teresa came into our hands at the age of ten, and we read it, not with any religious fervor, but because it seemed a good story, and we had nothing else of our own to read at the time. It filled us with a contempt of catering to the care of our body, which manifested itself mainly in discarding our overshoes and being laid up with a sore throat in consequence.

Every child has an insatiable curiosity, and in many children this curiosity satisfies itself in books. Why not utilize this curiosity of childhood in cultivating a fondness for books, the reading of which will leave an indelible impress on their minds of lasting benefit?

A man with a growing reputation as an authority in English criticism, and himself a writer of considerable note, on being questioned as to his favorite early reading, speaks with great fervor of the charms of a book of his boyhood days called *Betsy*

Jane on Wheels, Betsy being a stoutish character with a weakness for bicycling. Next *Oliver Twist* and *Æsop's Fables* absorbed his whole attention. Afterwards he developed a fondness for the classics and a passion for William Shakespeare, but his eyes glowed with no such loving light in discussing them as in recalling the charms of Betsy Jane. Yet this critic admits, though one or two books loom large in the memories of boyhood, it is not the effect of reading one book that counts, but the combined effect of the influence of many books read during impressionable years.

Much of the discussion on this point in the journals of late may seem idle, but at least it shows an aroused interest in this subject, which may eventually lead to a closer attention to the reading of the average boy and girl.

Perhaps the selection of their books, like so many duties that would appear to belong to the domain of home and parents, may even be transferred to the Teacher of English in the schools.

M. McC. B.

EDITORIAL COMMENT

The following editorial from the *New York Times Book Review* is timely in the extreme, and raises an immediate question. The English language has suddenly become the fashion, and its future complexion is therefore a matter of great moment in this vexed world of ours! One thing is very certain—if the language has been decadent, the war will quicken it into a new vigor and a new flavor, for new thoughts will come with the closing of the war, and with reconstruction:

"Anything that enriches the language, or that tends to conserve its beauties, must obviously commend itself to those who realize something of the inestimable treasure contained in English literature. In various well-intended movements to enrich and guard the language, however, there is at times a point of view taken that is apt to defeat its own purpose through its very conservatism. It is this narrowness of view and the theory upon which it is based that furnishes the material for an admirable article by Professor Brander Matthews, in the current number of *The Yale Review,* under the title, 'Is the English Language Decadent?' Professor Matthews

describes the American Academy of Arts and Letters as holding, apparently, to the affirmative answer to his question, citing several recent meetings of that body at which 'it was made evident that many, if not most, of those present were of opinion that the present condition of our noble tongue is alarming and that this condition is perhaps even more alarming in the United States than it is in Great Britain.' The trouble is, as one member of the Academy put it, that English 'hardened by long usage' is now 'spread over a large territory among diverse peoples,' and that in this respect it is being subjected to the same deteriorating influences that brought about the decadence of Greek 'when that language was no longer in the possession of the people alone who created it, but was spoken and written over a vast territory among many peoples separated from the main stem by political and other traditions.' The spread of English is, of course, incomparably greater than that of Greek in the 'Hellenistic era,' and if this territorial diffusion of a language were a sufficient cause for its degradation the immediate future for English might well be considered hopeless—bearing in mind the fate that overtook Greek. Happily, the two cases are—as regards one exceedingly important factor—quite dissimilar. As Professor Matthews points out:

"'The debasing of Greek literature and of the Greek language was due directly to the debasing of the peoples who spoke Greek. They had lost character as well as ability. They had become weaklings, mentally and morally; the virtue had gone out of them; and as an inevitable consequence it had gone also out of the literature and out of the language. If the Greeks had kept their virility Greek would never have "hardened." So long as a people retains its vigor and its vital energy, its language never grows old; it preserves its freshness and its health; it has the secret of eternal youth.'

"That, indeed, seems to be the root of the whole matter. The fallacy lies in regarding a language as something apart from and not controllable by the people—or peoples—using it. The reverse of this is true. 'A language has no independent existence,' Professor Matthews declares; 'its strength depends upon the strength of those who speak it.' Furthermore, the extension of a language 'is never due to its own merits but always to the enterprise and the prowess of those who created it in

their own image.' To declare, therefore, that English is decadent is merely another way of saying that the people, the nations using English, are decadent. In this problem of the decay or the improvement of English there is no gainsaying the fact that every year brings changes and additions in verbal usage and vocabulary. 'The great metropolitan English speech,' says Emerson, 'is the sea which receives tributaries from every region under the heaven.' The saying really puts the whole case in a nutshell. It emphasizes the fact that a living language is never stable; to make it so, to deny it the right daily to coin new words, would be to dwarf it, to keep it unresponsive to the constantly growing needs and ideas of modern times. Scholars, institutions of learning, have attempted thus to 'fix' a living language, to make English, for example, as inflexible as Latin must necessarily be. But, luckily, as Professor Matthews point out, 'language is never in the exclusive control of scholars. It does not belong to them alone, as they are often inclined to believe; it belongs to all who have it as a mother tongue. It is governed not by elected representatives but by a direct democracy, by the people as a whole assembled in town meeting. The younger and more active citizens of this linguistic community may propose new usages and new words and new meanings for old words; and the elder and more conservative citizens may protect against these novelties with all the weight due to seniority. And when both sides have been heard, there is a show of hands; and by this the irrevocable decision of the community itself is rendered.' Not every addition to current speech is desirable, nor to be counted as a genuine enrichment of English. The mighty literature lying between us and Chaucer is strewn with idioms, colloquialisms, that have long since dropped out of common use and are intelligible only to the lingual antiquarian. It is by such excisions, of course, as well as by the ceaseless additions, that the English language has become what it is. In its creation, naturally, the scholar, the academy, plays a part—but not the only part. Yet, this service of scholarship in the upbuilding of the language may be very great indeed:

"'By an appeal to the public, direct and incessant, by word of mouth and by the printed page, the members of the American Academy can insist on the value of our linguistic inheritance,

on our possession of a language incomparably simple in its grammar and incomparably comprehensive in its vocabulary. They can remind us Americans, descended from many stocks and united with the British by law and literature and language, of the preciousness of our English speech, the mother tongue of two mighty nations, inherited by us from our grandfathers, and by us to be handed down to our grandchildren, unimpaired in vigor and in variety, in freshness and in nobility. More than that it will not be wise to attempt.'"

The fate of old books is always interesting to the book lover. Since the wanton destruction during the past four years of some of the most precious manuscripts and volumes in the world, we regard with more jealous eye and appreciative attitude the remaining treasures. Consequently the following book sales will appeal with unusual force to those with a taste for rare editions.

Seldom, if ever, have such collections of the works of John Donne, John Dryden, Thomas Gray, John Milton, and Alexander Pope been offered at public auction as are in the library of the late Winston H. Hagen, which was sold at the Anderson Galleries, New York, on May 13, 14, 15, and 16.

"One of the scarcest items in the sale is a little volume containing poems of John Skelton, Poet Laureate to King Henry VII. It is entitled 'Here after foloweth certayne bokes cõpyled by Mayster Skelton, Poet Laureat, whose names here after shall appere. Name, Speke Parrot. The deth of the noble prince Kyng Edward the fourth. A treatyse of the Scottes, Ware the Hawke, The Tunnyng of Elynour Rummynge. Printed at London by Richard Lant for Henry Tab, dwelling in Paul's churchyard, at the Sygne of Judith.' It is the earliest known edition, and was published about 1520. This edition was not in the Hoe or Huth library."

"Books, manuscripts, and autograph letters of great interest from various owners will be sold at Sotheby's in London, on June 3, 4, and 5. Autograph manuscripts of Lord Byron from Newstead Abbey, the property of Lieut. Gen. Sir Herbert Chermside, are among the offerings. Verses by Byron upon hearing the report that he had made Miss Bristol an offer of marriage, a parody upon 'The Little Grey Man,' in 'Monk'

Lewis's 'Tales of Wonder,' are accompanied by a note by Miss Pigot, stating that the report was conjectured to have been spread by the lady herself, and that the whole is a true tale, even the description of the lady's dress being accurate. The poem is apparently unpublished. It begins:

> Mary Ann was a spinster in Southwell well known,
> The Darling was she of her parents alone.
> The Plague of her fellows by day and by night,
> So few in her presence could e'er find delight,
> For no maiden surpass'd, or perhaps ever can
> In prudish demeanour, the fair Mary Ann.

"'Harriet, Why That Pensive Brow?' and 'Harriet, Why Such Circumspection?' are poems that were addressed to Harriet Maltby. 'Young Oak, When I Planted Thee Deep in the Ground' are verses addressed to an oak in the garden of Newstead Abbey, which was planted by Byron in the ninth year of his age and at his last visit was in a state of decay. Autograph directions for his will are dated August, 1811. The most remarkable feature is the proviso that his body is to be buried in the vault of the garden at Newstead and that his dog is not to be removed from the vault. Byron's 'Fugitive Pieces,' Newark, 1806, is the rare earliest volume of his poetry, the whole issue of which, with the exception of only four known copies, was burnt by the author on the advice of the Rev. J. Becher immediately after it was published. Of the other three copies one belonged to Mr. Becher himself and is now in the late Mr. Buxton-Forman's library; the other two were sold at auction on June 1, 1907, and December 10, 1912, respectively. The present is a presentation copy to J. M. B. Pigot, with autograph inscription on the half-title and drawing in pen and ink and sepia of the Byron arms. Its interest is enhanced by the fact that a poem to the recipient is printed on page 46, and that the volume has for many years been preserved at Newstead Abbey, having belonged to Colonel Thomas Wildman, of Newstead."

The following theory of the origin of the pen name O. Henry is a new explanation of this author's book name, and very likely the true one—it is so whimsical.

We sometimes wonder, if an author could foresee the fame his writings would later attain, if he would select just that par-

ticular title under which he would be known to posterity. Circumstance and "happenstance" seem to determine this important fact, and mere chance decided this as it did so much else in William Sidney Porter's life.

"The origin of William Sydney Porter's pen name, O. Henry, has not hitherto been established. He is reported to have said that he found it among the names of those listed in the *Times-Democrat* or the *Picayune*, of New Orleans, as attending some of the Mardi-Gras functions. This is improbable, as he did not begin to write stories from New Orleans, but from Columbus, O., and it was in the latter place he first used the now famous pseudonym. When asked once what the "O." stood for, he laughed and said "Olivier," a few of his stories being signed Olivier Henry. I have always thought it possible that some clue to the name might be found, but I doubted whether, if the clue were reported from a book, the book would be one that O. Henry was known to have used, and used frequently enough to impress the name. All vestige of doubt has, however, been removed from my own mind by the following letter, which came to me a few weeks ago from Dr. Paul B. Barringer, a former chairman of the faculty of the University of Virginia and later president of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute.

"Dr. Barringer writes from Charlottesville, Va., under date of March 17, 1918:

"'At various times in my life I have run upon chemical analyses made by a Continental chemist who signed himself "O. Henry." While the substances under analysis were adapted to use in the Materia Medica, I had no idea until yesterday that the man was a pharmacist. In looking up the preparation of hydrocyanic acid in "The United States Dispensatory," found in the hands of every drug clerk in the United States, I found (pages 64 and 398) O. Henry twice referred to, in short search. Seemingly he was of Antwerp, as he wrote a good deal for the *Journal de Pharm. d'Anvers*, and also Paris pharmaceutical papers. In fact, I find his trail from 1833 to 1857, and he touched many of the lines a Southern drug clerk would be interested in, quinine, cinchonine, etc. Can it be possible that this short, crisp, unusual name, that hits the eye from the page, ever caught the eye of the young drug clerk, Sydney Porter, and stuck? O. Henry, it looks like a vocative. The edition of the U. S. D. that I used in looking this up

was the seventeenth of 1894, but the dates show that pharmacist O. Henry has been in these editions from quite early.'

"Turning to the fourteenth edition of 'The United States Dispensatory' (Wood and Bache, 1877), which O. Henry used when he was a drug clerk in his uncle's store in Greensboro, N. C., I find frequent references to 'O. Henry' (see pages 308, 376, 1424, etc.), 'Henry Jr.,' 'Henry Sr.,' and 'Henry.' The later editions of the 'Dispensatory' which the great short-story writer used in Austin, Texas, and in Columbus, Ohio, contain the same references to the famous French family, and thus convert a surmise of origin into a practical certainty. When it is remembered that Will Porter had from early boyhood an unerring feeling for odd and arrestive names as well as faces, and that he was filling prescriptions from 'The United States Dispensatory' when he first signed the name O. Henry to a short story (see 'O. Henry Biography,' pp. 155, 169), the evidence becomes, it seems to me, practically coercive that here and here alone the pen name took its origin.

"The man whose name has been thus strangely popularized was one of the most distinguished French chemists of the nineteenth century. Etienne-Ossian Henry, curtly abbreviated into O. Henry in the 'Dispensatory,' was born in Paris in 1798 (not, as Larousse has it, in 1793) and died there in 1873. Son of a distinguished father, Noël-Etienne Henry (1769 1832), and father of a distinguished son, Emmanuel-Ossian Henry (1826–1867), he has inscribed his name indelibly as analyst, discoverer, and benefactor upon the pages of his country's scientific annals. There are interesting sketches of his life in Larousse's 'Grand Dictionnaire Universel du XIXe Siècle' (1873, Vol. ix) and in 'La Grande Encyclopédie' (Vol. xix)."—*Prof. C. Alphonso Smith, in the Nation.*

NOTES

Most persons, if asked what the name of the Oxford Press suggested to them, would probably reply, "India paper." The discovery of this revolutionary product was made three-quarters of a century ago, but over twenty years went by before it was utilized in a large way. In 1841 an Oxford graduate brought home from the Far East a small fold of extremely thin paper, manifestly more opaque and tough for its substance than any paper manufactured in Europe. He presented it to the Press, and it was found to be just sufficient for twenty-four copies of the smallest

Bible then in existence, diamond 24mo. These were printed, and made books of barely a third of the usual thickness. Although £20 apiece was offered for them, none were sold; they were presented to Queen Victoria and other persons. The incident was forgotten, but in 1874 experiments were begun again, and the next year a Bible similar to those of the edition of 1842 was placed on the market. In a short time a quarter of a million copies had been sold.

As every one knows, the English court delighted in revels or dramatic spectacles as early as the time of Edward III, and under Henry VII a minor official of the court acted by royal appointment as master of these spectacles. Under Henry VIII the office became more important, and an officer of the Wardrobe was permanently employed to look after its duties, all appointments theretofore having been temporary. John Farlyon received a patent in 1534 as Yeoman of the Revels, and just a decade later Sir Thomas Cawarden was appointed Master of the Revels, the first to hold that office independently of any other. The chief of the masters under Elizabeth was Edmund Tilney, a manager of very respectable ability, who not only controlled all the court entertainments, but in time extended his powers over all plays and professional actors in London and the whole kingdom. Shakespeare knew him well, for he was in office when the playwright arrived in London and died in it about the time Shakespeare went back to Stratford. The succession to Tilney was one of the ambitions of John Lyly. After various incumbents had held the office, in 1623 Sir Henry Herbert, the younger brother of George Herbert, the poet, received it. Until 1642 he was dictator of the dramatic world in London, then taking the field beside his king against the Roundheads. He returned to his office with the Restoration, holding it till his death in 1673.

We sympathize heartily with those critics who resent the turning of "Alice in Wonderland" into a school book, and a very much edited school book at that. Just why a book that means so much to childhood—and to old age, too, for that matter—should be dragged into the classroom, and have notes and "Foreword" thrust upon it, is difficult to understand. But the thing has been done, "Alice in Wonderland" has become a text-book, and the editor is Mr. William J. Long. The worst of it is that Mr.

Long's "notes"—they are called "Notes and Harmonies"—are humorous, or *intended* to be humorous.

The following resolution was unanimously passed by the National Education Commission on the National Emergency in Education at its session of April 12, 1918, at N. E. A. headquarters, 1400 Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.:

"The National Education Association Commission on the National Emergency in Education and Necessary Readjustment During and After the War, representing thousands of loyal and patriotic teachers, believes the practice of giving instruction to children in the common branches in a foreign tongue to be un-American and unpatriotic, and we believe that all instruction in the common branches for all children in every state in this union should be in the English language. We therefore recommend that the instruction in the common branches in both private and public schools in all states be given in the English language only, and that every legitimate means, both state and federal, be used to bring about this result."

Mrs. Mabie, widow of Hamilton Wright Mabie, is collecting material for a book of memoirs of her husband, and has announced that all those who have letters from him or personal recollections of incidents connected with his life which would be of interest in the preparation of the proposed volume would confer a favor by allowing his literary representatives to see such letters or accounts of such incidents or stories.

President Wilson has consented to the issue of his various addresses during the war in a text-book edited by Professor George McLean Harper, of Princeton, in Henry Holt & Co.'s English Readings for Schools, under the general editorship of Professor Wilbur S. Cross, of Yale. The book will probably appear early in May and about a quarter of it will contain ante-bellum papers.

The Macmillan Company has taken over the entire book business of the Outing Publishing Company, and recently reissued about one hundred volumes previously published by the latter concern.

Speaking of dictionaries, Webster is the most used, the Century the most comprehensive and encyclopedic, and the Standard has the greatest number of new words. The atlas part of the Century Dictionary is now published and sold separately, and

there is an abridged Standard for $1.50, with 80,000 words and phrases and 1,200 pictures.

Boni & Liveright will publish this month, postponed from some months ago, a volume of selections from the poetry of the North American Indians under the title, "The Path on the Rainbow." George Cronyn has gathered and compiled the selections, Mary Austin has written an introduction, and the illustrations and decorations have been made by J. B. Platt, who only waited to complete them before joining the American Camouflage Corps.

Littell's *Living Age* has been taken over by the same group of editors that have taken over recently the *Atlantic Monthly* and made it such a popular, while literary success. The *Living Age* will be continued much as usual, giving the cream of the English periodicals, the only departure being excerpts from leading *continental* journals as well.

NEW BOOKS OF THE MONTH

ESSAYS AND CRITICISM.—*The Method of Henry James*, by Joseph Warren Beach. New Haven: Yale University Press. *The Negro in Literature and Art in the United States*, by Benjamin Brawley. New York: Duffield & Co. *Literary Chapters*, by W. L. George. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. *Illustrations of Chaucer's England*. Edited by Dorothy Hughes. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. *An Estimate of Shakespeare*, by John A. McClorey, S.J. New York: Schwartz, Kirwin & Fauss. *Giant Hours with Poet Preachers*, by William L. Stidger. Abingdon Press. *Last Lectures*, by Wilfrid Ward. Longmans, Green. *Whitman and Traubel*, by William English Walling. New York: Arens. *The Dramatic Records of Sir Henry Herbert, Master of the Revels*, 1623–73. Edited by Joseph Quincy Adams, Jr. New Haven: Yale University Press. *Correspondence of Sir Arthur Helps*. Edited by his son, E. A. Helps. New York: John Lane Company. *The Profession of Journalism*. Edited by Willard Grosvenor Bleyer. Boston: The Atlantic Monthly Press. *Appreciations and Depreciations*, by Ernest A. Boyd. New York: John Lane Company. *Anglo-Irish Essays*, by John Eglinton. New York: John Lane Company. *Shandygaff*, by Christopher Morley. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. *French Literary Studies*, by T. B. Rudmose-Brown. New York: John Lane Company. *Problems of the Actor*, by Louis Calvert. New York:

Henry Holt & Co. *Tell Me Another Story*, by Carolyn Sherwin Bailey. New York: Milton Bradley Company. *The Foundations and Nature of Verse*, by Cary F. Jacob. Columbia University Press. *Creative Criticism*, by J. E. Spingarn, Major 311th Infantry. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

POETRY.—*A Bibliography of the Works of Robert Louis Stevenson*, by Col. W. F. Prideaux. London: Frank Hollings. *The Habitant and Other Typical Poems*, by William Henry Drummond. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. *The Muse in Arms*, by E. B. Osborn. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company. *The Melody of Earth*. Selected by Mrs. Waldo Richards. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company. *Songs of Sunrise*, by Denis A. McCarthy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. *Mountain Roses*, by Mitchun Pavitchevitch. Rendered and edited in English by Woislav M. Petrovitch. A volume of selections from the poems of a Serbian poet. New York: Joseph A. Omero. *Somewhere Beyond*. A Year Book of Francis Thompson. Compiled by Mary Carmel Haley. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. *Georgian Poetry*, 1916–17. This volume supplements the two previous series of 1912–13, and 1913–15. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. *George Edward Woodberry*. Contemporary American Poet Series, by Louis V. Ledoux. Cambridge, Mass.: The Poetry Review Co. *Poetry and National Character*, by W. Macneile Dixon. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. *Metaphor in Poetry*, by J. C. Jennings. New York: Charles E. Merrill. *The Stag's Horn Book*. Edited by John McClure (Knopf; $1.60 net), is a collection of English convivial and merry verse from early days to our own. *Posthumous Poems of Algernon Charles Swinburne*. Edited by Edmund Gosse and Thomas James Wise. New York: John Lane Company. *The Poets of Modern France*, by Ludwig Lewishon. New York: B. W. Huebsch. *Some Nursery Rhymes of Belgium, France and Russia*. Selected and rhymed into English by L. Edna Walter. New York: The Macmillan Company.

M. McC. B. AND T. Q. B.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

EFFECT OF THE WAR ON SCHOOLS IN GERMANY

In response to requests for information on present educational conditions in Germany, the Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior, has made public the following translations from an article by Dr. Paul Hildebrandt in the *Vossische Zeitung*, Berlin, January 23, 1918. After reciting the early enthusiasm of German youth for the war, and their activities in behalf of war measures, the article continues:

"The sixth grade pupils of 1914 are now about to be promoted to the upper third. They have become accustomed to the war. Who can wonder, then, that now in the fourth year of war our children exhibit signs of change? Too many of the restraints have been removed which should shape their development—the loosening of family ties, the father at the front, the mother employed away from home, and in the lower ranks of society doing the work of men; the omission of school discipline. Of the teachers of the Berlin public schools, for instance, two-thirds have gone into the army. The remainder are overworked. Dropping class periods, or combining classes together are the order of the day. In the higher schools half of the teachers are in the army. Furthermore, standards in the higher institutions of learning have gradually been lowered until the final examination has been pushed back fully two classes. All these conditions have influenced our students and have weakened their persistence, since they see that they can attain a scholastic standing without effort that formerly demanded the severest application.

"Young people follow the law of their nature. They are guided by the impressions of the moment and they cannot permanently resist them. In addition, as time went on, especially in case of the students of higher institutions, and particularly in the towns, the hardship of inadequate nourishment appeared. It is the unanimous judgment of medical specialists that the children of the middle classes suffered most in this respect. General attention was attracted to the fact that the children were less sensitive to reproof, that they paid no more attention

to threats, because the school authorities had directed that they should be treated with every leniency, and since promotions no longer represented any definite standard of accomplishment. This special consideration for the children was most obvious in the schools of the large cities. Were not harvest work and the country vacation necessary to maintain the health of the coming generation, and was it not necessary for a great many to be set back in their studies so that they required repeated concessions to maintain their rank and thereby continually lower scholastic standards of their classes?

"That spirit of voluntary service which at the beginning of the war revealed itself in its fairest aspect has now disappeared. Everywhere we hear lamentations over the increasing distaste shown for military service. Pupils collect articles now for the reward, not from patriotism, and the older pupils have their struggles. Shall they take advantage of the opportunity to leave school with a half-completed education, or shall they avoid placing themselves in a position where they will have to enlist for their country? What an unhappy indecision even for the best of them, those who really think about the matter.

"Furthermore, in these ranks of society which are less influenced by tradition, discipline, and education, we find increasing violations of the law. At the first this manifested itself merely in an increase of theft. More recently it has taken a decided turn toward personal assaults. It is true, the latter are still negligible in proportion to the total number of juvenile offences, but they are increasing every year. Already the number of violent crimes committed by youths in the city of Berlin is more than three times the number reported in 1914.

"Thus, dark shadows are falling over the brilliant picture of 1914. Every disciplinary influence, every effort of the still fundamentally sound German nation must be exerted to oppose this tendency, and to lead the children back to the path of rectitude."

WAR TIME COMMUNITY CENTERS

"Every schoolhouse a community capitol and every community a democracy."

With this as his motto, Dr. Henry E. Jackson, of the Bureau of Education, of the Department of the Interior, has prepared a special war-time bulletin on "The Community Center: What it is and how to Organize it." The bulletin was prepared for use in connection with the joint campaign conducted by the Council of National Defense and the Bureau of Education, to organize local communities for national service. It will be distributed free.

In his bulletin Dr. Jackson says:

"Our three most urgent national needs are to mobilize intelligence, food and money. But it is not possible to mobilize them until we first mobilize the people. The nation's present need has made apparent the necessity of organizing local communities. The Council of National Defense discovered it through its experience in the war. The Bureau of Education had begun the task before we entered the war. These two organizations have now united their forces for the accomplishment of their common purpose to promote community organization throughout the nation. The slogan of the one is: *Every school district a community council for national service.* The slogan of the other is: *Every schoolhouse a community capitol and every community a little democracy.* President Wilson has clearly indicated the profound significance of this movement in the letter he wrote to commend it.

"The creation of a democratic and intelligent social order is essentially the same task, whether our approach to it be local, national, or international. To establish free trade in friendship in all three communities is the goal of the community center movement.

"The post office, corner store, and saloon are passing as social centers, but they must be replaced with something better if they are not to be replaced with something worse. For only he can destroy who can replace. The public school, therefore, stands before an open door of opportunity to become a neighborhood club, where the people can meet on terms which preserve their self-respect.

"The schoolhouse used as a neighborhood club renders an invaluable public service. It seeks to create the neighborly spirit essential for concerted action. The means employed are

various—games, folk dances, dramas, chorus singing—which require the subordination of self to cooperative effort, dinner parties, where the people break bread in celebration of their communion with each other as neighbors. These activities not only render a service to the individual by promoting his happiness and decreasing his loneliness, they discover in the community unsuspected abilities and unused resources. To set them to work not only develops the individual but enriches the community life.

"It thus becomes apparent that the neighborhood club furnishes the key to the possible solution of a variety of problems —the Americanization problem, for example. The object of the community-center movement is to achieve freemen's citizenship, both for native and foreign-born alike. But citizenship means membership. It is obvious that the teaching of English to aliens is not sufficient to make them members of America. To acquire the language as a means of communication with their fellows is, of course, a necessary preliminary. But it is only a means to an end. If they are ever to feel that they belong with us, the right hand of fellowship must be extended to them. The neighborhood spirit alone can create in them the spirit of America."

ENLIST—AND GO TO COLLEGE

Many a 1918 high school graduate is debating with himself this year: Shall I go to college, or shall I enlist at once for military service?

The War Department has just made it possible to do both. It says, in effect, to the ambitious young American: "You serve your country by going to college. To make sure that you do not lose thereby the opportunity of serving your country in a direct military capacity, you will be asked to join the special U. S. Army college training units that are to be formed. You will be liable for service at a moment's notice, but because you are worth more to the nation with your college training than without it, you will be expected to stay in college until called by the Government."

The War Department's announcement provides that beginning with September, 1918, military instruction, under officers and noncommissioned officers of the Army, will be provided in

every institution of college grade enrolling for the instruction one hundred or more able-bodied students over the age of eighteen. The necessary military equipment will be provided by the Government. There will be created a military training unit in each institution. Enlistment will be purely voluntary, but all students over the age of eighteen will be encouraged to enlist. The enlistment will constitute the student a member of the Army of the United States, liable to active duty at the call of the President. It will, however, be the policy of the Government not to call the members of the training units to active duty until they have reached the age of twenty-one, unless urgent military necessity compels an earlier call. Students under eighteen, and therefore not legally eligible for enlistment, will be encouraged to enroll in the training units. Provision will be made for coordinating the Reserve Officers' Training Corps system, which exists in about one-third of the collegiate institutions, with this broader plan.

"This new policy aims to accomplish a two-fold object," the War Department announces, "first, to develop as a great military asset the large body of young men in the colleges; and second, to prevent unnecessary and wasteful depletion of the colleges through indiscriminate volunteering, by offering to the students a definite and intermediate military status."

No nation has made such generous provision for combined military and college education as has the United States in this new plan. The youth who avail themselves of the privilege will be serving their country's immediate as well as future needs.

CURRENT EVENTS

CATHOLIC UNIVERSITY OF AMERICA

On Wednesday, May 1, in the assembly room, McMahon Hall, the Right Reverend Rector, Bishop Shahan, delivered the inaugural discourse on the Chair of the Immaculate Conception, recently founded by a generous layman, whose name, at his own request, is withheld for the present. The purpose of this chair is to teach in perpetuity at the University the life and example of the Blessed Virgin and to demonstrate from Catholic Theology and the history of the Church Her eminent place in the plan of divine redemption. During the month of May four lectures were given on this foundation by the Reverend Bernard A. McKenna, S.T.L. The subjects were "The Blessed Virgin and Christ," "The Blessed Virgin and the Church," "The Blessed Virgin and the World," and "The Immaculate Conception." These lectures were delivered, respectively, on Wednesdays, May 8, 15, 22, and 29, and were open to the public.

Rev. George M. Sauvage, C.S.C., of Holy Cross College and Professor of Psychology at the University, who has been serving as Chaplain in the French Army since the beginning of the war, delivered a lecture in the assembly room, McMahon Hall, on Thursday evening, May 2, at 8 o'clock. The subject of Lieutenant Sauvage's discourse was "The Soul of France." It was well attended by the professorial and student body.

Another interesting and well-attended lecture was that of the Very Rev. James A. Walsh, President of the Catholic Foreign Mission Society of America, on "Catholic Missions in China," delivered to the student body on the evening of May 7 in the chapel of Gibbons Hall.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The 1918 convention of the National Education Association will be held at Pittsburgh from June 29 to July 6. The preliminary announcements promise a full and varied program, with subjects of papers and discussion most timely and important.

The preliminary program follows:

MONDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 1, 2 O'CLOCK

Robert J. Aley, Vice-President, National Education Association, Orono, Maine, presiding.

Music—2.00–2.20:

Community and patriotic singing—Leader, Will Earhart, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Scripture reading:

Adele Bradford Hatton, Denver, Colo.

Addresses of welcome:

Samuel Hamilton, Superintendent of Allegheny County Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

E. V. Babcock, Mayor of the City of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

W. M. Davidson, Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Response:

Josephine Corliss Preston, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia, Wash.

President's address—"Building the New Civilization":

Mary C. C. Bradford, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Denver, Colo.

"The New Program of the National Education Association—An Opportunity and a Responsibility":

Nathan C. Schaeffer, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

MONDAY EVENING, JULY 1, 8 O'CLOCK

Music—8.00–8.20:

Community and patriotic singing—Leader, Will Earhart, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"War Modified Education in England":

A representative of the Government of Great Britain.

"War Modified Education in Italy":

A representative of the Government of Italy.

"War Modified Education in France":

A representative of the Government of France.

The governments of Great Britain, Italy, and France have been invited to send representatives of their departments of education and of their national education associations to this meeting. There is a desire for our National Education Asso-

ciation to send delegations to meetings of the National Education Association in foreign countries.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 2, 2 O'CLOCK

Music—2.00–2.20:

Community and patriotic singing—Leader, Will Earhart, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Character Education":

David Snedden, Professor of Education, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

"Educational Contributions to Thrift":

Walter A. Jessup, President, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

"Solving Thrift Problems Through Child Training":

Kate Devereux Blake, Principal, Public School No. 6, Manhattan, N. Y.

"Thrift and National Service":

Frank A. Vanderlip, Chairman, National War Savings Committee, Washington, D. C.

TUESDAY EVENING, JULY 2, 8 O'CLOCK

General Topic: Education for Democracy

Music—2.00–2.20:

Community and patriotic singing—Leader, Will Earhart, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"The War's Challenge to Democracy":

James A. B. Scherer, Member National Council of Defense, Washington, D. C.

"As the Average Man Sees It":

John Collier, President National Community Center, New York, N. Y.

"The Ultimate Unit in Democracy":

P. P. Claxton, National Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

"America's Experience in Democracy—What Are Its Failures and Successes?"

Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, Washington, D. C.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 3, 2 O'CLOCK

General Topic: The National Emergency in Education

Music—2.00–2.20:

Community and patriotic singing—Leader, Will Earhart, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"Education and Our Democracy":

W. C. Bagley, Professor of Education, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

"Training for National Service":

Thomas E. Finegan, Deputy Commissioner of Education, Albany, N. Y.

"Competent Teachers for American Children":

Lotus D. Coffman, Dean of the School of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

"National Support for Education":

Payson Smith, Commissioner of Education, Boston, Mass.

"Enlisting the profession for Our National Program":

Carroll G. Pearse, President, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

"Why We Should Have a National Department of Education":

J. A. C. Chandler, Superintendent of City Schools, Richmond, Va.

"The National Emergency in Education":

George D. Strayer, Professor of Educational Administration, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

The Government and Foreign Service is the militant keynote of the program of the evening session. By that time it is expected that the military situation will be such as to make this one of the outstanding programs of the session. The following speakers have been invited to address the convention on the subjects here given:

"Why Should the Government Train for Foreign Service?"

Glen Levin Swiggett, Chairman of Committee of Fifteen on Educational Preparation for Foreign Service, Washington, D. C.

"Bases of Pan-American Accord in International Relations":
Leo S. Rowe, Secretary-General of the International Commission, Washington, D. C.
"The Rôle of Women in the New Internationalism":
Mrs. Louis F. Post, Member of Executive Committee, Women's Auxiliary Committee of the United States, Second Pan-American Scientific Congress, Washington, D. C.
"The Foreign Trade of the United States; Some Essential Problems and Their Solution":
James A. Farrell, President, National Foreign Trade Council, New York City.
"The Cooperation of Government and Business in the Conduct of Foreign Trade":
William C. Redfield, Secretary of the Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C.
"The Diplomatic Policy of a Democracy":
Robert Lansing, Secretary of State, Washington, D. C.

THURSDAY FORENOON AND EVENING, JULY 4

The program for Thursday forenoon and Thursday evening is not in complete form. Among those to deliver addresses are:
Marion L. R. Burton, President, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
G. Stanley Hall, President, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.
Martin G. Brumbaugh, Governor of Pennsylvania, Harrisburg, Pa.
Two of America's distinguished war-time leaders are scheduled for these programs. Further announcements will be made later.

FRIDAY FORENOON, JULY 5, 10 O'CLOCK

"Tradition in Education as Affected in the West by the War":
J. A. Churchill, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Salem, Oreg.
"The Trend of Reform in Education as a Result of the War":
John T. McManis, Professor of Education, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.

"Training Pupils for Citizenship":

J. E. Goldwasser, Specialist in Immigrant Education, New York, N. Y.

"Our Profession Shall Not Go into Bankruptcy":

Joseph E. Swain, Chairman, N. E. A. Committee on Teachers' Salaries, Tenure, and Pensions, Swarthmore, Pa.

Business meeting—11.00–12.00.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 2 O'CLOCK

General Topic: War Modified Education and the Rise of the Common Life Through It.

Music—2.00–2.20:

Community and patriotic singing—Leader, Will Earhart, Pittsburgh, Pa.

"War Modified Education, the Teachers, and the Schools":

Walter R. Siders, Superintendent of Schools, Pocatello, Idaho.

"War Modified Education and the Dilution of Women in Industry":

Hilda Mulhauser Richards, Chief of the Woman's Division of the United States Employment Service of the Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

"War Modified Education, Labor, and Democracy":

Samuel Gompers, National President of the American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.

"War Modified Education and Its Relation to Illiteracy":

Cora Wilson Stewart, President, Kentucky Illiteracy Commission, Frankfort, Ky.

"War Modified Education and the Rise of the Common Life Through It":

A. E. Winship, Editor, *Journal of Education*, Boston, Mass.

SCHEME TO CLOSE PARISH SCHOOLS

A storm of protest has arisen as the result of an attempt to amend the State constitution of Michigan so as to prohibit the attendance of children at private schools. The Detroit *Free Press* says: "If only a small part of the things said condemnatory of the measure are true, it is bad enough, and quite warrants the opposition in this city which has arisen among

people interested in educational matters without regard to their religious affiliation or sentiment. So far as Detroit is concerned, the mere outlawing of the parochial schools and private schools would be a disaster." A significant and informative treatment of the question has appeared in an article contributed to the Detroit *Journal* by Charles D. Cameron, which is here reproduced. The writer says:

"Petitions for an amendment to the State constitution restricting the education of young children to the public schools are being circulated.

"Strong opposition already has developed to the proposition among educational and civic interests.

"Patriotic forces are also aroused against it. They fear it will promote dissension in war-time, when unity is vitally needed.

"It is claimed that the proposed law would close the fifty Lutheran parochial schools, the forty Catholic parish schools, and the scores of private schools in Detroit.

"It is also asserted that the law would limit the teaching activities of the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., and close certain State institutions.

"The amendment is drawn in such a way, according to its opponents, as to take the education of every child of five out of the parents' hands.

"Adoption of the amendment would entail an expenditure of between $25,000,000 and $50,000,000 in Detroit alone to replace the closed institutions. This would seriously boost taxes.

"Following is the language of the amendment, copied from the official petition furnished by the Wayne County Civic Association, 228 Broadway Market Building:

"'Article XI, Section 16. All residents of the State of Michigan, between the ages of 5 and 16 years, shall attend the public schools in their respective districts until they have graduated from the eighth grade. *Provided,* That in districts where the grades do not reach the eighth, then all persons herein described in such district shall complete the course taught therein.

"'Section 17. The legislature shall enact all necessary legislation to render Section 16 effective.'

"Catholic and Lutheran parents are only a part of those affected by the above amendment.

"Any parents of a child 5 years old will immediately be forced to send that child to a public school. He cannot wait until the child is a little older.

"Every 5-year-old child, no matter whether he is healthy or sick, normal or abnormal, blind or seeing, deformed, crippled, or tuberculosis, or mentally defective, must go to the public school. And no matter what his handicaps, he must stay in school until he finishes the eighth grade or is 16 years old.

"A blind child can no longer be sent to the State institution, because he must attend the school 'in his district.' The State School for the Blind at Lansing, the State School for the Deaf, at Flint, must close their doors, and so must all other institutions except the district schools.

"Children of five or over must not be taught in private schools like the Liggett School. They must not be taught at home by tutors or governesses. Unless they have completed the eighth grade in their respective districts, they cannot go to the Detroit school for boys, or to business college, or to boarding schools, or home schools.

"Indeed, under this amendment, even a reformatory like the Industrial School for Boys, or the school for girls at Adrian, or any other public or semi-public reformatory for juveniles would be suppressed. Only the public school and the school in that district would rule. A parent in the country who wishes to pay tuition for a child in a city school could not do so. He could send that child only to the school in the district, no matter if that school were the poorest and the teacher the least capable in Michigan.

"Naturally, this very remarkable amendment has aroused the teachers of the State. In the near future a number of important educational conferences will be held. Private school teachers, boarding school masters, business college proprietors, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. leaders, and leaders of juvenile reform, with home protective associations, will be invited to these conferences.

"The amendment would close Catholic parochial schools valued at $10,000,000 upwards; it would close Lutheran schools valued at $1,000,000 upwards; it would close the lower departments of the University of Detroit, and stop many educational activities in the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A.

"It would limit the operation of institutions like the Cass Technical High School; it would close all the private day schools, Catholic, Protestant, Jewish, wealthy or charitable.

"It would immediately compel the erection of immense new school buildings.

"It would also add immediately to the annual tax burden. The Catholic schools alone cost the parents of that faith $2,000,000 a year.

"Just who are behind this campaign is not yet known. However, the parents and teachers who are opposing it say they will have a sure way of determining this.

"Two thousand signatures have already been received. Fifty-seven thousand are needed.

"If the 57,000 names are obtained, they will be filed with the Secretary of State. Then they will be copied by the opponents of the amendment and printed in a booklet. A fund will be provided for the publication and state-wide circulation of this booklet, with the names and addresses of all the signers.

"It has been known for months that an attack on non-public schools was planned. An attempt was made in the last legislature to have a bill introduced on the lines of this amendment. No one who was approached could be induced to introduce the bill.

"It has never been known just who have been encouraging or supporting this plan of attack. The names of five incorporators of the Wayne County Civic Association have been filed with the articles of incorporation, but the roster of general membership is not given out."

The *Michigan Catholic,* in its issue of April 18, has spoken directly and clearly to the Catholic body on the situation. A section of its remarkably good editorial will be of general interest:

"The initiative process of making laws and the intricate ramification of many existing enactments and their interrelation, especially in school matters, make alertness and vigilance on the part of all citizens imperative. We have heard from time to time about movements to tax churches and schools or in some other way to subject private education to regulations which ultimately will destroy liberty of education. But the

attempt recently made by the subterranean Wayne County Civic Association is the boldest, the meanest, and most sweeping attempt to establish Prussianism in the State of Michigan. Fortunately, public opinion is strongly set against this dastardly assassination of liberty, so strongly, we think, that hardly anyone who cares for his reputation as a decent citizen will put his name as a Bismarck on the petition. The petitions are open to inspection, we believe.

"Underlying the Michigan plot is no doubt the thought fostered by some un-American bigots that 'the public school is the only place where American citizens are made.' This sentiment was expressed some eighteen years ago in the declaration of principles of the National Educational Association (now National Education Association). This sentiment has projected itself for many years in the plan of establishing in Washington, the seat of our Government, a Department of Education instead of a Bureau of Education. This plan is again strongly promoted at present. The *School Review* of April reports that the Association of College Presidents has submitted to the chairman of the Senate Committee on Education, and at his request, the following statement:

" 'Since education is universally recognized as the first corollary of democracy, it seems incongruous that it should not be recognized as of equal rank in the councils of the nation with that accorded to commerce, labor and agriculture, all of which have representation in the President's Cabinet.'

"Presidents Judson, McCracken and Campbell have elaborated a detailed program in which, to our great surprise, the sentence of Humboldt is quoted: 'What we desire in the government, we must first put into the minds through the schools.' It is hardly in good taste to quote Humboldt. We are surprised to see such a statement, because we are fighting exactly against that kind of autocracy which uses the schools as a means of its undemocratic aims.

"Objections are raised, and justly so, as reported in the *School Review*, first, the familiar argument of State rights and local control, and, secondly, that the present crisis is a very inopportune time for pressing the question. The *School Review* brushes these objections aside. It assures us that the majority

of school men of the N. E. A., recently gathered in Atlantic City, and a score of other associations, embracing practically all the more prominent organizations of the country, heartily supported the movement. Of course, any association that did not support a plan which will ultimately be the grave of American liberty of education does not belong to the more prominent organizations. Such organizations are probably ranked as inferior clubs, at least in the eyes of the above promoters, and standardization of higher degrees and of teachers' qualifications and national plans for the certification and employment of teachers by the department is especially advocated as being beyond State action. Thus speaks President J. W. Crabtree, chairman of the Emergency Council on Education (*School Review*, April, p. 296).

"We have not heard that the Catholic Educational Association—and this certainly is one of the more prominent associations—has endorsed the plan. We do not think that it ever will or can endorse such a plan, because the final results (or result) aimed at, viz.: to control all educational activity through the Federal Government is but too plain. It becomes painfully plain in the last shot fired in the *School Review*. "England Germany, France, have national departments of education. Why should education in the greatest democracy of them all be left stranded in one subbureau of the Department of the Interior?'

"This flattering question is answered by anyone who has common sense and a spark of liberty in his heart. France is no democracy in the right sense of the word; liberty of religion and education is crushed there. France is no model of education for the great democracy of America. Germany can hardly be held up as a model at the present time. Liberty of education in the American sense of the word is unknown. England is indeed more liberal, but recently it was quite near, even in this war-time, to crush to a great extent liberty of education, and has fortunately seen its mistake and withdrawn the drastic bill.

"What inspiration in education can France, Germany or England give America? What absurdities and injuries are committed in the name of democracy! We are living in a free

republic where we enjoy liberty of conscience, of religion, of business enterprise and educational enterprise. Why go to European countries that know not such liberty? Why forge chains to fetter American citizens when we are sending our best men and are sacrificing all our resources to win the fight for democracy? Indeed, in the heads of some people democracy means autocracy and most shameful suppression of liberty is advocated in the sweet name of democracy.

"No doubt more than ever before must we heed the warning: *"Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty!"*

CATHOLIC STATISTICS FOR 1918

There are 17,416,303 Catholics in the United States (not including our island possessions), according to the 1918 edition of "The Official Catholic Directory," published and copyrighted by P. J. Kenedy & Sons, of Barclay Street, New York. According to the tables of the 1918 edition, the net increase in the number of Catholics for the year 1917 amounts to 393,424. Fifty-nine dioceses and archdioceses reported increases, four showed decreases, and thirty-eight made no changes in the population figure. This does not mean that the thirty-eight dioceses in question are at a standstill, but simply indicates that no new diocesan census was possible last year.

Comparing the figures of the 1918 issue with those of the 1908 volume, it is found that the increase in the number of Catholics during the past ten years has been 3,538,877.

According to Joseph H. Meier, who has compiled the Directory for more than a decade, the figure 17,416,303 is not at all exaggerated; in fact, the figure is low, as no records can be kept of the "floating" Catholic population, and as nearly all of the thirty-eight dioceses making no change have surely increased in population during the past few years. If it were possible to show the increases for the thirty-eight dioceses, among which are some of the important archdioceses in the country, and if it were possible to gather data on the "floating" Catholic population of the United States, Mr. Meier feels that he would be absolutely safe in saying that the actual Catholic population of this country would be shown to be over 19,000,000. Special care was taken so that the young men in the mili-

tary service would not be counted twice; that is, once in the diocese in which the camp or cantonment was located and again in their home dioceses. Arrangements were made to include only the Catholic soldiers and sailors in their home dioceses.

If to the figure 17,416,303, which is the population of the United States proper, are added the number of Catholics in Alaska, the Canal Zone, the Virgin Islands, Guam, the United States possessions in Samoa, the Hawaiian Islands, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands, it is found that the total number of Catholics under the protection of the Stars and Stripes is 26,266,642.

There are several new features in the 1918 edition of Kenedy's Official Catholic Directory, and one to which special attention ought to be called is the list of Catholic Army and Navy chaplains. The section in question was held open until the last possible moment, and in the list will be found the names of 309 Catholic priests who were serving under the Stars and Stripes when that particular form went to press.

According to the general summary of the new Kenedy publication, there are now 20,477 Catholic priests in the United States. Of this number 14,922 are secular priests and 5,555 are priests of religious orders. Other figures taken from the summary are as follows:

Archbishops, 13; bishops, 93; churches with resident priests, 10,369; missions with churches, 5,448; seminaries, 106; seminarians, 7,238; parochial schools, 5,748; children attending parochial schools, 1,593,407; colleges for boys, 217; academies for girls, 677; orphan asylums, 297; homes for aged, 109.

PATRICK J. MCCORMICK.

BOOK REVIEWS

The Achievement of the British Navy in the World War, by John Leyland. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1917. Pp. vii+95. Paper. Price, 1 shilling.

The chapter headings are: Duties and Responsibilities of the Sea Service; The Centre of Sea-Power; Sweeping the Enemy from the Oceans; The Grasp of the Mediterranean, Sea- and Land-Power; Dealing with the Submarines; The Navy and the Mine; The Navy and Army Transport; The Navy That Flies; Officers and Men of the Navy; What the British Navy Is and What It Fights For.

Britain in Arms (L'Effort Britannique), by Jules Destree, with a Preface by Georges Clemenceau. Translated from the French by J. Lewis May. New York: John Lane Co., 1917. Pp. xv+292. Paper.

Lord Northcliffe's War Book, with Chapters on America at War, being a Revised and Enlarged Edition of "At the War." New York: George H. Doran Co., 1917. Pp. 283. Paper.

The Expansion of Europe, The Culmination of Modern History, by Ramsay Muir. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. xv+300. Cloth.

Two paragraphs in the preface give the purpose of this volume: "We realize today, as never before, that the fortunes of the world, of every individual in it, are deeply affected by the problems of world politics and by the imperial expansion and the imperial rivalries of the greater states of western civilization. But when men who have given no special attention to the history of these questions try to form a sound judgment on them, they find themselves handicapped for the lack of any brief and clear résumé on the subject. I have tried, in this book, to provide such a summary, in the form of a broad survey unencumbered with details, but becoming fuller as it comes nearer to our time . . . My second purpose is rather more ambitious. In the course of my narrative I have tried to deal with ideas rather than with mere facts. I have tried to bring out the political ideas which are implicit in, or which result from, the conquest of the world by western civiliza-

tion; and to show how the ideas of the west have affected the outer world, how far they have been modified to meet its needs, and how they have developed in the process. In particular, I have to direct attention to the significant new political form which we have seen coming into existence, and of which the British Empire is the oldest and the most highly developed example—the world-state, embracing peoples of many different types, with a western nation-state as its nucleus. The study of this new form seems to me to be a neglected branch of political science, and one of vital importance. Whether or not it is to be a lasting form, time alone will show. Finally, I have tried to display, in this long imperialistic conflict, the strife of two rival conceptions of empire; the old, sterile, and ugly conception which thinks of empire as mere domination, ruthlessly pursued for the sole advantage of the master, and which seems to me to be more fully exemplified by Germany; and the nobler conception which regards empire as a trusteeship, and which is to be seen gradually emerging and struggling toward victory over the more brutal view, more clearly and in more varied forms in the story of the British Empire than in perhaps any other part of human history."

The Forum of Democracy, by Dwight Everett Watkins, and Robert Edward Williams. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1917. Pp. ix+194.

"The aim of this book is to inspire patriotism, to set forth the democratic ideals of the United States and its associates in the Great War, and at the same time to furnish classes in reading and speaking with a new, interesting and stimulating collection of the writings and speeches of the master minds of today."

Conditions in the Sugar Market, January-October, 1917, by Joseph E. Freeman, Esq. New York: The American Sugar Refining Company, 1917. Pp. 80.

My Children's Robert Louis Stevenson Paint Book. New York: Lloyd Adams Noble, 1917.

Mother Goose Pictures My Children Love to Cut Out (and Assemble). New York: Lloyd Adams Noble, 1917.

Around the World with the Children, An Introduction to Geography, by Frank G. Carpenter. New York: American Book Co., 1917. Pp. x+133.

Hamilton's Standard Arithmetic, Book One, by Samuel Hamilton, Ph.D. New York: American Book Co., 1917. Pp. 256+xv.

Hamilton's Standard Arithmetic, Book Two, by Samuel Hamilton, Ph.D. New York: American Book Co., 1917. Pp. 300+xx.

Hamilton's Standard Arithmetic, Book Three, by Samuel Hamilton, Ph.D. New York: American Book Co., 1917. Pp. 374+xxii.

Everyday English Composition, by Emma Miller Bolenius. New York: American Book Co., 1917. Pp. xii+340.

The Science and the Art of Teaching, by Daniel Wolford La Rue, Ph.D. New York: American Book Co., 1917. Pp. 336.

The author of this volume covers in a very elementary and superficial way many subjects of great importance.

New American History, by Albert Bushnell Hart, LL.D. New York: American Book Co., 1917. Pp. viii+650+lii.

Catholic Education, A Study of Conditions, by Rev. J. A. Burns, C.S.C., Ph.D. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1917. Pp. ix+205.

The reader is prepared for a good piece of work on the present conditions of education from the author of "The Catholic School System in the United States," nor will he be disappointed as he peruses this brief and eminently readable volume. The chapter headings are: General Conditions; Religious and Moral Teaching; The Psychological Side; Inner Relations; Teaching the Children; High Schools for Boys; The Secondary Education of Girls; College Growth and Tendencies; Inner College Problems;

Seminaries. Of course, it would be unreasonable to expect in so brief a space a full presentation of the problems in this vast field. What one should look for is a balanced judgment and broad outlook of the philosopher and historian of education who is thoroughly conversant with the thousand things that he must leave unsaid for want of space. This is a perfectly legitimate excuse for omissions, provided that the omissions are relatively unimportant matters, but the great central outstanding features should be present. One is, therefore, somewhat at a loss for the line of reasoning which led the author to omit in his pages all mention of one of the most significant, perhaps the most significant, feature of Catholic high school education in the United States at the present time, a movement which has resulted in one hundred and sixty of our leading Catholic high schools accepting a standard curriculum furnished by the Catholic University, covering every part of the field for the full four years' course. The examination papers at the end of the year are set by the University and the papers are all corrected by University professors. More than twenty thousand papers were corrected at the University in 1917. In this way, a curriculum is devised which meets the curriculum of the elementary school on the one hand and of the college, on the other. For any pupil taking the prescribed course and passing successful examinations in it at the end of each year is admitted without question, not only to Trinity College, but to all the colleges affiliated with the University and to state institutions of collegiate grade in several of the states.

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

Report of the Proceedings and Addresses of the Fourteenth Annual Meeting of the Catholic Educational Association, Buffalo, N. Y., June 25, 26, 27 and 28, 1917. Columbus, Ohio, 1917. Pp. viii+511.

This volume, like its predecessors, contains a number of valuable papers on timely topics of Catholic education. Some of these papers have already appeared in the REVIEW. The fourteen volumes of this publication constitute, at present, one of the most valuable sources of Catholic education in the United States. The volumes are furnished to all the members and may be had by applying to the Secretary General, 1651 East Main St., Columbus, Ohio.

Christopher Columbus, in Poetry, History and Art, by Sara Agnes Ryan, with an introduction by Rev. F. A. McCabe. Chicago: The Mayer & Miller Co., 1917. Pp. 259.

The book is well printed and well illustrated, but its title is somewhat misleading. Only 165 pages come under the title, and it will seem to many a pity that the volume did not end here. The following 56 pages which are devoted to "Lourdes and the Eucharistic Congress," "Some Memories of Mexico," and "Personal Letters and Testimonials to Miss Ryan Pertaining to Her Book, Florence in Poetry, History and Art," make a somewhat incongruous part of the volume, however valuable these things are in themselves.

Educational Tests and Measurements, by Walter Scott Monroe, Ph.D., Assisted by James Clarence DeVoss, A.M., and Frederick James Kelly, Ph.D. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1917. Pp. xxii+309. Price, $1.50.

During the past few years a multitude of educational surveys have been undertaken by various bodies of experts, chiefly by the United States Bureau of Education, the General Education Board, and the Carnegie Foundation. The printed accounts of these surveys constitute a body of technical literature on the subject that is very valuable indeed, but that is scarcely accessible to the average teacher, who, for the most part, lacks the scientific training requisite for a proper appreciation of the facts set forth, and generally lacks both time and inclination to systematize these facts in such a way as to render them serviceable in the classroom. The present volume represents an attempt to bring the most conspicuous of these results within the reach of principals and teachers. The time now seems ripe for a clear and simple statement as to the nature of the different tests which have been evolved, their use, their reliability, what are the best standard scores so far arrived at, and, in particular, how to diagnose the results and apply remedial instruction. This the three authors of the present volume in the series have attempted to give, and to make their work of the largest possible usefulness to normal school students, teachers, and principals of the schools, they have cast the whole in language so simple and untechnical that the average grade teacher can read the book and understand it. In addition, to give still larger value to the book, they have added a number of

chapters, written in a similar simple and readable style, giving the essential elements needed in understanding simple statistical methods, the meaning of scores, the unreliability of school marks and their relation to standardized scores and the use of standardized texts in the work of school supervision.

The words just quoted, in which the scope and character of the work is sufficiently indicated, are from the pen of Ellwood P. Cubberley, editor of the Riverside Textbooks in Education, the series to which the present volume belongs.

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

The Congregation of Jesus and Mary, Cameos from its History, with a Foreword by the Rev. Sydney Smith, S.J. London: Burns & Oates, 1917. Pp. xix+139.

In this charming little volume may be seen an outline sketch of the foundation and spread of the community, the courage, zeal and simplicity of its members everywhere winning to Christ the little ones, and in it may be traced. without difficulty, the splendid ideals which have inspired and are still inspiring the Catholic teaching Sisterhoods of our day. There is not a dull page in the book, and one rises from its perusal refreshed and invigorated.

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

Standards in English, A Course of Study in Oral and Written Composition for Elementary Schools, by John J. Mahoney. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1917. Pp. xi+198. Price, $0.90.

This volume constitues one of the School Efficiency Series. It is brief and clear-cut. The page is not burdened with elaborate argumentation, and bears evidence on every page of the skill and precision of the author. It aims at establishing a minimum standard and of showing how, by careful work through grade after grade, the final goal may be reached in each grade, which is described as "to graduate pupils able to write an interesting paragraph of clean-cut sentences unmarked by misspelled words or by common grammatical errors." In this little volume the author has broken away from the traditional methods. His book will be welcomed by the grade teachers whom it cannot fail to interest and to help.

The Wool Industry, Commercial Problems of the American Woolen and Worsted Manufacture, by Paul T. Cherington. Chicago: A. W. Shaw Co., 1916. Pp. xvi+261.

This volume confines its treatment to the commercial problems involved in the industries producing woolen and worsted fabrics. It is not concerned with sheep-raising, nor indeed with wool-growing. It is concerned solely with the buying and selling of raw materials and finished products. In this it is shown that it is the demand in the market for finished goods and the availability of supply that govern production. "Early in this investigation it was observed that the characteristics of the woolen and worsted industries are determined, not so much by problems of raw material supply, or of cloth production, as by the problems involved in marketing the finished fabrics. It became evident, for example, that the present relative importance of the output of worsteds, as compared with woolens, is not due to the greater number of sheep being grown which produce wool suitable for such fabrics. On the contrary, it appeared that whatever connection exists between these phenomena, the change in the character of the demand for fabrics is the cause, and the change in the character of wool-growing the effect, rather than vice versa. Again, the large scale of the worsted mills and their marked geographic concentration seem to be largely due to the conditions under which staple worsteds are sold. In other words, it became plain that in both industries the causal forces in the development of the production activities are the wants and habits of the buying public." This voume will be much appreciated by students in economics and by those who are interested particularly in the industries in question. It is very well written.

The Scientific Study of the College Student, by Harry Dexter Kitson, Ph.D. Princeton, N. J.: Psychological Review Co. Pp. 81.

This brochure is published as one of the Psychological Monographs, Whole No. 98 of the Psychological Review Publications, 1917. The work is decidedly in the right direction. The accumulating evidence of psychology as applied to education makes the old procedure of devoting the instructor's entire time to the matter of instruction unpardonable. The student that is to be educated demands careful study. President Harper of the University of

Chicago in 1905 expressed his conviction that the efforts of educators would turn in this direction, but it is not easy to alter practices that have been established for ages. If Dr. Kitson is correct, we are already in the dawn of a better day. "The rapidly evolving ideals of twentieth century education are bringing to light another responsibility that rests upon college and university administrators. Academic failures of students must be recognized as necessary subjects for investigation. The tendency of the past has been to accept the academic 'cripples' rather ungraciously as necessary phenomena of the normal curve of distribution, or else summarily to dismiss them on a general charge of incompetency. An awakened conscience, however, is prompting a new attitude towards these academic weaklings—a recognition of the obligation to study the individual in order to determine the cause of his deficiency, and then to apply remedial measures. So long as an institution accepts and retains a deficient student as a matriculant it owes him not merely low grades but special efforts looking towards their elimination. The needs of the better-than-average student are also being seen in a clearer light. Institutions of learning are coming to see that special capacity deserves special opportunity and the establishment of 'honor courses' represents the recognition of the obligation to adapt instruction to individual needs."

Dr. Kitson gives an account of the work that is being done to meet the needs of the individual student of the University of Chicago. His chapter headings are: The Ideal of Individualized Instruction; Psychological Tests for College Students; Description and Discussion of Tests; Psychological Norms for College Students; Comparison between College Groups; Training for Efficiency in College; and Vocational Guidance in the College Student.

THOMAS EDWARD SHIELDS.

An Experiment in the Fundamentals, Giving the Results of Tests Made in the Cincinnati Schools with Two Kinds of Practice Material, by Cyrus D. Mead. Yonkers-on-Hudson: World Book Co., 1917. Pp. xiv + 54.

This little volume is one of the School Efficiency Monographs.

The following pamphlets will interest the readers of the Review.

A Spanish Catholic's Visit to England, Impressions by Fran-

cisco Melgar, Translated from the Spanish, with Introduction and Notes by Thomas Okey. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1917. Pp. 56.

Poland and the Germans. London: The Complete Press, 1917. Pp. 44.

Ireland and Poland, A Comparison, by T. W. Rolleston. London: T. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., 1917. Pp. 22.

Enlistment for the Farm, by John Dewey. New York: Columbia University Press, 1917. Pp. 11.

Columbia War Papers, by Roscoe C. E. Brown. New York: Columbia University Press, 1917. Pp. 7.

Extracts from a Review of Dr. Yocum's "Culture Discipline and Democracy," by Friedrich Baumann, with a Rejoinder by Dr. Yocum. Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co., 1917. Pp. 29.

American Loyalty, by Citizens of German Descent. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1917. Pp. 24.

Marian Poems, Contributed to The Queen's Work Poetry Contest. St. Louis: The Queen's Work, 1917. Pp. 46.

The Personal Relation in Industry, by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. New York, 1917. Pp. 43.

Spiritistic Phenomena, and Their Interpretation, by J. Godfrey Raupert, K.S.G. Buffalo, N. Y.: Catholic Union Store, 1917. Pp. 64.

The Catholic Encyclopedia and Its Makers. New York: The Encyclopedia Press. Pp. viii+192.

Long before the appearance of its last volume the Catholic Encyclopedia had already won the right to rank as the monumental work of Catholic scholarship in the English tongue. The high standard set in the beginning was consistently maintained to the end, and as volume succeeded volume the execution of the work itself elicited universal admiration. How this great achievement was made possible is modestly told in the present volume.

An introduction of six pages briefly describes the making of the encyclopedia by telling of the organization of the editorial staff, the plans and methods of the editors and the business of publication; the body of the work, about 200 pages, portrays

the makers, a list of 1,452 contributors. With each name go short biographical notes, the list of articles contributed by the writer and in most instances his or her photograph. Needless to say the last is not the least interesting feature of the book. It adds a real attraction to this unique Catholic "Who's Who" for the world of scholarship and literature.

The writers represent, so we are told, 43 countries, a fact attesting the international character of the Encyclopedia and also the utility of the present book for those who will want to know the official, professional or scientific position of the writers whose articles are perused. Our educational institutions and teachers would do well to procure this companion volume to the Encyclopedia. For educational purposes it enhances the value of the work a hundred fold.

Patrick J. McCormick.

Young Folks' Music Study Plays, by Carol Sherman. Philadelphia: Theodore Presser, 1917.

In our schools we have been endeavoring to bring before the minds of our children in a concrete way the great deeds in the lives of statesmen, warriors, and the great men of the ages. This has been done by depicting incidents in their lives in dramatic form. This plan is found beneficial to the child, for when a child participates in or witnesses a performance in which the leading events in the lives of great men are depicted, his interest is so aroused that he will always remember.

In this work, we have the incidents in the lives of great composers of music, such as Beethoven, Bach, Mendelsohn, Mozart, brought home to children in such a way that they will appreciate these composers the more when once they are able to play their compositions. It is an excellent means to bring home to children the fact that greatness is not all a matter of chance, but comes only to those who labor and strive after it. Again it is a great help in making children understand the characteristic marks of the compositions of the masters. The plays are very simple, requiring little or no scenery or costumes. They may be made regular school-work by being merely read in class as a history lesson. It is evident that the author has had some experience as a class-teacher and dramatic director. Teachers will find the plays very practical and useful. They can suit their own taste as to the

advisability of using the plays as regular class-work, or making of them elaborate stage productions.

F. J. KELLY.

Child's Own Book of Great Musicians. A Series of Six Biographies for Children, by Thos. Tapper. Bach, Mozart, Schubert, Mendelsohn, Schuman, Handel. Price, 15 cts. each. Philadelphia: Theo. Presser, 1916.

This is a very ingenious work in which the child writes its own story of the facts in the life of a great musician, by inserting illustrations in their proper place. The story of the lives of the great composers is written in very simple language. Instead of having the illustrations printed in the book, they are supplied on a separate sheet to be cut out and pasted in their proper place. This completed, at the back of the book there are blank pages upon which the child is to write his own story of the great musician, based on the facts and questions found in the book itself.

This series not only furnishes a pleasing and interesting task for children, but also teaches them the main facts with regard to the life of each of the great musicians, an educational feature worth while. When finished, the book is sewed by the child, signed by him, and thus he actually makes it his own work. It is a work of permanent musical and educational value, and should commend itself to teachers of music to beginners.

F. J. KELLY.

High School Songs. Prepared by Sarah Boyer Callinan. Allyn & Bacon, 1917. Pp. 350.

This interesting collection contains one hundred and seventy songs of all grades of difficulty able to be mastered by older children. The songs are selected from ancient and modern composers, and all have great musical and educational value. In addition there are several illustrations, a history of music of fifteen pages, and a special musical information for the student. It is a work that will appeal to and be of particular interest to the High School student. The interesting footnotes to the different songs are of great assistance, both to the teaching of the song, and in the singing of it intelligently. It is a collection that can very well be recommended to our teachers of high schools for boys and girls.

F. J. KELLY.

The New Chardenal, A Complete French Course, by C. A. Chardenal, Revised and Rewritten by Maro S. Brooks. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1916. Pp. xxvii+381.

Listening Lesson in Music, by Agnes Moore Fryberger. Introduction by Osbourne McConathy. Chicago: Silver Burdette Co., 1917. Pp. 276. Price, $1.25.

This timely and useful book will be welcomed by all who are engaged in the teaching of music to children. It is of especial value to those teachers who, in addition to their regular duties in the classroom, must also teach singing. Such teachers, as a rule, have little or no special musical training.

The various chapters of the book are so arranged as to cover matter for each grade, from the first up to and including the High School Grades. The work is supplementary to phonographic records. At the very end of the work is found a graded list of the records mentioned in the book as well as all the words of the song records. It is a work that teachers will find advantageous to investigate.

F. J. KELLY.

The Art of Music. A Narrative History of Music in 14 Volumes, edited by Leland Hall and Cesar Saerchinger. Introduction by C. Hubert Parry, Mus. Doc. New York: The National Society of Music, 1917.

This, the latest work of its kind, was begun in 1915, and the last or 14th volume appeared July, 1917. The scope of the work is so vast that it would require an individual review of each volume to do it justice. As this would mean a too lengthy consideration for our purpose, we will be satisfied to go into such detail as will give our readers some little idea of this monumental work.

The work aims to be a standard for study and reference, furnishing the serious student of music and the music lover, a mine of information, providing the historical background, which the musician of today needs for intelligent judgment. It is a real modern scientific criticism of the art of music. Mr. Arthur Fauvell, in his introduction to the fourth volume of this series, aptly says: "Prophecy, not history, is the most truly important

concern of music in America." The writer of music today is concerned in intelligently correlating the past and present productions, rather than in allowing his fancy to be based upon chance or exaggerated ideas of what the composition should be.

The first four volumes are devoted to a phase of the art called a "Narrative History" of music, which deals with the criticism and analysis of the works of composers. These four volumes are historical in character and are primarily instructive. For this latter reason especially the teachers of music in our schools will find them advantageous and useful in their work. The five following volumes, V to IX, treat the art of music from its practical side. The singer will have recourse to volume V, the organist to volume VI, the pianist to volume VII, the orchestra and choir leader to volume VIII, those interested in opera to volume IX. In volume X we have music treated in its relations to the dance, for the mathematical forms for dancing are to be found in music, the very soul of which is rhythm. The two parts of the work, the historical and practical, are correlated and unified in volume XI and XII, the Dictionary and Index, and illustrated by musical examples in volumes XIII and XIV.

Theoretically, the work is of the greatest value. It contains short essays on harmony and on form, and many passages of explanation of similar matters scattered through all the volumes, acquainting the music student with the fundamental principles of musical theory and the standard types of musical structure, thus affording him valuable aid to appreciative listening. The work will give the student that general knowledge of the most important schools and the greatest individuals of music history, which is not only a powerful aid to the enjoyment of music, but is, nowadays, come to be considered an essential part of a liberal education. Moreover the student will gain sufficient familiarity with music itself and sufficient understanding of the instruments by which it is produced, so that he can discriminate between good, bad and indifferent music, thereby developing his taste. The work is valuable, in that it instructs the student historically, it refines his taste, it intensifies his enjoyment of good music by teaching him how to listen.

To the beginner of music as well as to the educated musician, this work is a boon. It should be in the library of all who make a pretense to study music seriously. Especially valuable is it in

the school where both the student and teacher can have access to it at all times during the years of study of the art.

F. J. Kelly.

Playing and Singing Book, by Miss Frothingham. Chicago: Clayton F. Summy, 1917.

This attractive work is designed for both boys and girls. Of all the problems that the teacher of children is confronted with, the most difficult is the choice of the right kind of music suitable to their years, which will at the same time keep them interested. The author here seems to have solved the problem. Children, as a rule, love to sing, and they will recall to mind melodies better if they can hum them, or to which words can be added. The authoress of this work seems to have a unique gift for beautiful melody, and she develops these melodies in a simple, interesting and charming manner. This little volume is a real treasure and every teacher of singing whose work is with small children will find it very useful. The character of the words and music is bound to interest children, while at the same time it has a real educational value.

F. J. Kelly.

A Book of Musical Knowledge, by Arthur Elson. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. Price, $3.50 net.

The author here has given us a most valuable book for the music lover's library. The work is one of the most comprehensive of its kind, giving in an entertaining and interesting way the essentials of musical information, beginning with the most primitive attempts in the art, noting its progress in the pagan world and the early Christian times, in the Middle Ages, and in the different schools of harmony, counterpoint and composition. The different forms of musical composition are treated as to their development in a logical and clear way. There is a section on the subject of musical instruments, information that is very helpful to the student of music. It traces the history of the piano, the organ, stringed and wind instruments, giving much information not generally had by the ordinary musician. The lives of great composers down to the present day are briefly outlined. A course of study, with the object of encouraging and developing a higher appreciation of

music, concludes the work. It is a comprehensive work of reference for the serious student, which will meet his ordinary wants.

F. J. KELLY.

Keyboard Harmony, by Uselma Clark Smith. Boston: Boston Music Co., 1916. Pp. 87, bound in cloth.

Most of the works of harmony that we are acquainted with are based on the principle that the student should depend on paper and pencil for the solution of the problems contained in these works. Again the authors of these works, in fact of all works of harmony, do not approve of the use of the keyboard in the study of this important branch of musical culture. Whether it should be used or not is a debated question. This work is designed for students of harmony, who would prefer the use of the keyboard to perfect their knowledge in this necessary branch of musical education. The author is a thorough musician, an organist of note, a teacher, and the work certainly reflects his ability. One thing to be noted in the work is that nineteen pages, almost one-fourth of the book, treat of intervals and ear-training, the foundation work of harmony. The work does not treat harmony in an extensive way, but rather presents the subject in a new and interesting manner.

F. J. KELLY.